

The Nation.

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The Week.

MR. POLLARD has managed to procure from the President permission to resume publication of the *Richmond Examiner*, on promise of exceedingly good behavior. General Grant has, however, issued a general order directing the various commanding officers to keep their eyes on the Southern press, with the view of punishing such newspapers as are guilty of continued attempts to excite hatred of the Government and sow ill-will between North and South. This may, at the present juncture, seem a necessary precaution, but we doubt very much whether the muzzling of the press will do much towards putting the South in a good humor. The theory of despotic governments is that, by carefully preventing all public expression of disloyal feeling, the feeling itself will be at last extinguished, but the plan has never succeeded, though it has been tried in a dozen countries ever since the invention of printing. Nor will it succeed in the South. The only antidote that we know of for the raving of Southern zealots, is the maintenance of free speech by the strong hand in every part of the country. Let Southern editors say what they please, but give those who differ with them a chance of making themselves heard, also, with safety, if not with comfort. Mr. Pollard writes as he does, and his readers feel as they do, solely because for years before the rebellion no man dared to gainsay any of the teachings by which the country was at last plunged into civil war. Can the Reconstruction Committee and Congress not see that this must be the basis of all plans for the social or political regeneration of the South?

THE reports of the proceedings of Congress sound oddly occasionally as given in the daily press. Mr. Lawrence, of Ohio, for instance, is described as having introduced a bill "to provide punishment for throwing cars from railroad tracks," from which one might conclude that this was a species of amusement which was being carried a little too far, and which the law had to interfere to restrain. We believe, however, that it is in all the States a crime for individuals, and that impunity attends its commission only when corporations indulge in it. If Mr. Lawrence could provide for the appointment of inspectors of railroad tracks, who would be sure to do their duty, and care more for the public than for the companies, he might safely leave the punishment of throwing trains off the line to State laws.

WE recommend to the Citizen's Association the plan adopted by our Irish fellow-citizens who desire clean streets for their procession on St. Patrick's Day. They have sent in advance to the Mayor an exact description of the route they will take, with the request that he will see

to clearing it of all unnecessary filth. No reply could have been more prompt or gracious than his Honor's, as no precaution could have been more thoughtful than this, which was taken a month in advance of the time. Now if Messrs. Hecker, Cooper, and Stewart will only give their employees a holiday, say on the 18th of March, on condition that they shall parade through the streets which our Irish benefactors avoid, and warn the Mayor betimes, we may get the whole city tolerably cleaned, and so far prepare it for the coming of the cholera.

GEN. LEE has made his appearance in Washington, for the first time since he deserted the United States army, and has given evidence before the sub-committee touching the state of Virginia. His reflections during his visit to the city must have been painful, and his expression of a wish that the Government "may endure for all time," was, if sincere, considering how he has spent the last four years, an act of humiliation that might satisfy a Dominican confessor. His account of the state of feeling in Virginia adds nothing to what we know already.

JOHN MITCHEL writes from Paris to congratulate Mr. O'Mahony on "having got rid of the title of president, and of the constitution, and of the senate." We trust that this magnificent contempt for the law and the authorities will not animate the "executive" after they get installed in Dublin. We recommend the Irish people to exact the most stringent guarantees from both Mitchel and O'Mahony before they let them drive the English out of the island. Mitchel is a desperate man, and if he were once allowed full discretion in dealing with the English, there is no knowing how he might behave to the republic afterwards. The agent of the Fenian finance department reports the investment of fifty dollars by an "intelligent darkey" in the bonds of the republic. The "darkey" in question must not only be "intelligent," but of a highly speculative turn, and a person of considerable means.

THE New York *Times's* correspondent sends that paper an account or the state of society in Texas which is so horrible as to be almost amusing. He calculates that out of 14,000 inhabitants of Galveston, 2,000 are "murderers, vagabonds, and thieves." Murders and murderous assaults are the order both of the day and night, and the inhabitants begin to talk of a vigilance committee. The Germans through the State feel very bitterly over the treatment experienced by them during the war. Large numbers—larger than we have any idea of here—were murdered for refusal or unwillingness to join the Confederate army.

THE iron-clads at League Island are either ice-bound or stranded, and in either event most uncomfortably situated either for preservation or for use. The gift of that mud-bank to the nation for a navy yard is one on which Philadelphians pride themselves, but it had best be looked in the mouth before it is accepted. The site could be made tenable only at great cost; it is not readily accessible at all seasons; is deficient in depth of water; exposed to floating ice; of doubtful healthfulness, and its fresh water seems to be its only recommendation. But there is no point of the comparison between it and New London in which it has any advantage, while in many it is vastly inferior, and especially in this of serving as a haven for laid-up iron-clads. The harbor on the Thames is highly sheltered, the river never freezes, and communication with the sea is always open. The experience of this winter ought to hasten the action of Congress, which is already familiar with the merits of these rival stations from the reports of various naval committees.

THE Chamber of Commerce of Charleston met last week for the first time, we believe, since the war, and Mr. George Trenholm, on moving

a set of resolutions, spoke magniloquently of the service the South had rendered the negroes during the existence of slavery. He said "it had educated them; took them barbarians, and returned them civilized and Christian to those from whom we received them." He added that the Southerners "could give no better evidence of the manner in which they had acquitted themselves of those duties than is afforded by the judgment of others as to the qualifications for citizenship of our emancipated slaves." Mr. Trenholm is evidently a little of a wag and a good deal of a sophist.

APPROPOS of the remarks on another page about wasting the President's time with objectless or unnecessary calls, a Washington correspondent relates that a company of ten New York Congressmen called one evening last week on Mr. Johnson "for a friendly consultation." "They came away," it is added, "without being able to draw him into conversation." The fact deserves to be recorded in that article which is now a favorite selection with country newspapers—"remarkable escapes of great men."

A PERSON named Fleming has announced in the papers that he was the person whom Senator Wade accused of an attempt to assassinate him, but that the whole foundation of the story was that he took out a jack-knife in Mr. Wade's presence, cut off a "chew" of tobacco, and spat in the fire. After the performance of these harmless and genteel acts, finding Mr. Wade cold in his manner and absorbed in a newspaper, he wished him good evening and left the room, and he boldly insinuates that the attempt to assassinate and the kicking down stairs only took place in Mr. Wade's imagination. The public had, however, only begun to enjoy the relief caused by this explanation when the senator announced that Fleming was not the man, and thus we are again plunged in gloom and uncertainty.

THE internal revenue returns for the last year have brought out the fact that the five Eastern States have contributed nearly three times as much to the national coffers as the Western. On the other hand, the West, we believe, contributed a larger proportion of fighting men during the war, but the revenue returns from some of the Western States seem suspiciously small. It is an odd thing that Illinois should pay little over one-half as much taxes as Ohio.

MR. TIMOTHY G. CHURCHILL, the treasurer of the Lincoln Monument Fund, writes to us to say that the sum now on hand is \$15,000, invested in United States seven-thirty bonds, and that, with a view of "securing at an early day" such additions to the fund as may be necessary to complete the monument, the committee has been enlarged by the addition of the one appointed by the Union League Club. The committee is now composed of twelve prominent citizens of New York. We do not know what the nature of the monument is to be, but we fear that there is a good deal of work still to be done in raising money if the scheme is to be worthily carried out.

ONE cannot help censuring the Speaker of the Tennessee House for joining in Saturday's debate without leaving his chair, and for using such unparliamentary language toward a member as "d—d old liar," "lying scoundrel," etc. But for merely "accompanying the words with his mallet, which he hurled with considerable force at the head of Mr. Mullens," who straightway drew a pistol on him, some praise may even be accorded. When two Southern men fall out and only one proves to be armed with a deadly weapon, it is a sign that the old-style civilization is giving way to something better. In the present case it were much to be wished that Mullens had retorted with his inkstand.

THE sub-committee deputed by the Committee on Reconstruction to consider the case of Tennessee has reported a bill admitting that State to the Union and fixing her representatives at eight until another apportionment of the representation according to actual enumeration. The full committee, however, require the insertion of a clause in her constitution providing for the equality of her people, and the repudiation of the rebel debt. But if Tennessee has now to be declared by

law a State of the Union, what has been her position during the last four years?

THE long-talked-of race between the *Winooski* and *Algonquin*, or, as one might say, between Mr. Isherwood, of the Navy Department, and Mr. Dickerson, took place on the Sound on Tuesday and Wednesday of last week. We suppose it was "just her luck," but the *Algonquin* was fearfully distanced; steered wildly; broke part of her machinery, and went through her usual chapter of accidents. It is thought now that the controversy is settled, and we observe that the reporters for the press who have danced attendance on the two vessels heartily pray that it may be so. But the defeated party chose in advance to decline the issue of speed for that of economy, and we do not despair of further and very lusty wrangling.

THE Fenian excitement continues in Ireland, and is, if anything, on the increase. It is, of course, fed by the organization in this country, and will probably not die out until the Brotherhood here have really tried their luck in arms on some spot of British territory. What the result of any such attempt would be, it is, of course, easy to predict. In the meantime, the agitation is doing some good by shaming even English conservatives into a calm and serious consideration of the "Irish difficulty." The *Saturday Review* has at last been driven to acknowledge that there is behind the Fenians something which the Fenians can neither belittle nor make ridiculous; that the condition of Ireland is a disgrace to Great Britain, and that all means taken to change it hitherto have been next to worthless. Some of the liberal journals acknowledge, with a half shudder, that it seems as if nothing but the transfer of the land to the tenantry, in fee, would be sufficient to solve the problem. Mr. Mill has declared that this is perhaps the only possible solution, and the effect of the spoliation of the aristocracy in France on the physical condition of the French people would seem to be a strong argument for it. But then this would be a social revolution, and what English minister dare propose it?

MR. PEABODY has increased his donation for the benefit of the London poor by £100,000, making in all a quarter of a million of pounds sterling. Whether this is in consequence of the failure of the original outlay to reach the class for which it was intended—i. e., the very poor—or because Mr. Peabody is satisfied with what has been done, we cannot say. His gift, even if rightly applied, could relieve but a small proportion of those who are either homeless, or unwilling inmates of tenement-houses. The *London Times* is unspeakably astonished at his liberality, which is, indeed, without a parallel.

THE *Eco del Pais* describes the appearance of Prim's insurgent army at Bodonal, on the Portuguese frontier, as that of great dejection and exhaustion. The general had not quite a thousand men with him. All were eager to reach the border, and none anxious to contest its passage with the Queen's troops. Some boys at Bodonal fully responded to the cry of the troops, "Long live General Prim; hurrah for freedom; down with the imposts!" and one citizen joined his voice to theirs. "Oh yes," said the general bitterly, "you hurrah me, but you do not follow me with your weapons in your hands, to fight for liberty and the good I would win you." A peasant working in the fields, by the road along which the insurgents passed, came out, and, taking Prim's horse by the bridle, asked him what ends he proposed to achieve. The general answered him: "Liberty; the happiness of the people; the reduction of the imposts; four years' service for the soldiers who follow me, and the suppression of the town-dues." But it appears, from his present course, that General Prim proposes to himself to do all this good thing in Portugal rather than in Spain. We cordially invite him to come here and open a regenerate kingdom in this city. He must have enough money left to pay the rent of a furnished house for two or three years and get bonds printed.

MR. CASSIUS M. CLAY recently visited Moscow and was given a banquet by the leading merchants of the ancient Russian capital. It came out, in the after-dinner speeches, that America and Russia had

always been great friends, and would always remain such, since they had no conflicting interests; just as at international banquets in England it appears that both people have a common ancestry and both speak the language of Shakespeare and Milton. The dinner, of course, had no political importance.

THE domiciliary treatment of the sick and infirm of the poor in Paris is growing in favor with men of science. The report, recently made, of the director of the *Assistance Publique*, declares that the larger number of recoveries takes place when invalids are allowed to remain with their families, and that the superior care of hospital attendance is counterbalanced by the encouraging influences of familiar scenes.

A CONFLICT between the Prussian Crown and Parliament has already arisen. A pestilent deputy has asked to know how Lauenburg came to be united to the crown at a time when Parliament was not in session, and in spite of the constitutional provision declaring that the King cannot become sovereign of foreign states without the consent of the Chambers. Von Bismark has made no reply whatever to this demand.

A FACT significant of a friendlier feeling than has heretofore existed between the Italian and Austrian courts is, that Francis Joseph has ordered mourning for twelve days as a token of regret for the death of the Duke of Monferrato, son of Victor Emanuel.

THE *Italia* denies that the Pope has accorded an amnesty to the political convicts in the pontifical prisons. His Holiness has not even forgiven the offenders born in the Romagna and the other territories united to Italy in 1860, who happened, at the time of the union, to be in the galleys at Civita Vecchia. The Pope is sick, but he is not yet a saint.

AN Imperial edict addressed to the Czar's lieutenant at Warsaw orders the establishment of public schools in Poland, in which the Russian and Polish languages and the histories of the two countries shall be taught indifferently.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 17, 1866.

THE debate upon the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation still continues at great length in the Senate. The vote will probably be taken upon it during the coming week. Meanwhile another important constitutional amendment has been reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, the discussion of which will be commenced in the House as soon as sundry election cases and appropriation bills are considered. This second proposed amendment lays the foundation for a direct regulation of civil rights in the States by the federal Government, but does not touch the question of suffrage. The committee is divided in opinion as to the present expediency of a radical measure extending the elective franchise to men of all races and colors, and it is not probable that such an amendment will be recommended at the present session of Congress.

It is understood that the Joint Committee agreed to report early next week in favor of a "recognition" by Congress of the loyal State government now organized in Tennessee, as asked for in a memorial presented the other day in the Senate from four of the eight representatives elect from that State. It is important to explain that this step is not, as might otherwise be supposed, in entire consonance with the President's wishes and policy, and Mr. Patterson, senator elect from Tennessee, and a son-in-law of President Johnson, declined signing the memorial to Congress. The President's theory is that Tennessee, like the other rebel States, has never been out of the Union in any sense, and that, consequently, no recognition or re-admission of it as a State is proper at the hands of Congress, whose sole duty in the premises consists in the immediate admission of its chosen senators and representatives. The memorial of Mr. Horace Maynard and his colleagues, and the report of the Joint Committee of Fifteen, on the other

hand, assume the right in Congress to recognize or reject the State government organized in Tennessee. The memorial goes further, and asks that Congress will not only recognize it as "the true and proper government" of the State, but will "guarantee its perpetuity." Now, there are only two ways in which Congress can guarantee the perpetuity of Gov. Brownlow's government. One is, by sending enough United States troops to the State (and keeping them there) to maintain the loyalists against the disloyal majority, which, by the united evidence of trusty witnesses, including the governor himself, still exists there. But is this a republican form of government? The other way is for the black population to be invested with the elective franchise. It is a knotty question, and the report of the Joint Committee upon the recognition or re-admission of Tennessee will be the entering wedge to a discussion which will probably outlast all the rest, and will open up difficulties which are very likely to prevent any precedent of reconstruction being established at the present session.

The petitions just presented in the Senate from Virginia loyalists, praying Congress to resume control of the government of that State, on the ground of the utter disloyalty of the majority as represented by the existing Legislature, afford a pregnant lesson to the hasty reconstructionists. When even the President, whose magnanimous policy was summed up in the watch-word, "We must trust the South," finds it necessary to suppress newspapers and nullify laws by military edict, in a State lying within sight of the national Capitol, is it not fair to conclude that his theory of the indefeasible rights of the "restored" States is subject to pretty wide exceptions?

The general bankrupt act reported by Mr. Jenckes, of Rhode Island, in the last Congress, and amended in much detail by the House at the present session, encountered an unexpected obstruction to its passage (previously regarded as certain) by a single concise sentence from Thaddeus Stevens. He said: "This is not the time, when all rebellion is indebted to us, to pass a law to free them from their debts."

The appointment of a Select Committee of Seven, in the House of Representatives, to consider and report upon the subject of a National Bureau of Education, is a noteworthy sign of the tendency of the times. Gen. J. A. Garfield is chairman of the committee, and its other members are Messrs. Patterson, Boutwell, Donnelly, Randall, Moulton, and Goodyear. This is a strong committee, but the bill referred to them, providing for the organization of the bureau, is not a very strong measure. It merely provides for a National Commissioner of Education, with sundry clerks, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, whose duty it shall be to collect and diffuse facts and information regarding popular education and the conduct of schools throughout the States and Territories.

DIARY.

Monday, Feb. 13, 1866.—The two Houses of Congress met in joint session in the hall of the House of Representatives, in commemoration of the late President Lincoln, this being the anniversary of his birth. A memorial oration was pronounced by George Bancroft. No business was transacted by either House.

February 13.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan presented the credentials of Lewis E. Parsons as a senator from Alabama. Laid on the table. Mr. Wilson's bill to increase and fix the military peace establishment was passed to a second reading. Mr. Fessenden, from the Joint Committee of Fifteen, reported the following proposed amendment of the Constitution: "The Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper to secure to the citizens of each State all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States; and to all persons in the several States equal protection in the rights of life, liberty, and property." Laid on the table. The Committee on Commerce were instructed to enquire what legislation is needed by Congress to protect life from danger by explosion of tubular boilers. The naval appropriation bill passed by the House was referred. Mr. Sprague's motion to reconsider the passing of the bonded warehouse bill came up, when he opposed the bill as intended to regulate prices, and as giving the foreign importer unfair advantages over the domestic manufacturer. The constitutional amendment, regulating the basis of representation, was taken up. Mr. Sumner offered an amendment to it, exempting from taxation all persons excluded from the right of suffrage on account of race or color.

In the House, a resolution declaring against the French protectorate in Mexico, and looking to an alliance of all the republics on this continent, was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs. A motion to admit to the privileges of the floor Col. T. M. Johnson, claimant of a seat from Arkansas, was defeated—yeas, 70; nays, 78. The Joint Committee of Fifteen reported to the House the constitutional amendment already cited in the Senate proceedings. Recommended, with leave to report at any time. The rest of the day was consumed in a Michigan contested election case.

February 14.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition from women, asking an amendment of the Constitution to prohibit any State from disfranchising any of their citizens on account of sex. Mr. Sumner remarked that he did not think this

proper time for the consideration of this question. Many petitions were presented praying for universal suffrage. Mr. Grimes presented a memorial from Horace Maynard and three other representatives elect from Tennessee to the House of Representatives, asking that the present loyal State government of Tennessee may be recognized by Congress, and its perpetuity guaranteed as the true and proper government of that State. Referred to the Joint Committee of Fifteen. Bills were passed to incorporate the Metropolitan Insurance Co. of the District of Columbia, and to grant public lands to the State of Wisconsin to aid in connecting the waters of Green Bay with Lake Michigan. The Senate resumed the special order, being the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Henderson spoke at length against it and in support of his amendment prohibiting the States from disfranchising citizens on the ground of color. He said the amendment of the Committee of Fifteen was a compromise, which surrendered the rights of the negro out of the hands of the general Government into the hands of States not fit to be entrusted with them. Mr. Clark advocated the amendment, on the ground that it was virtually granting to all the people of the country, both white and black, the right of suffrage. He held that the rebellious States had forfeited their political rights, and it would not now be safe to restore them to the Union.

In the House, the bill granting the use of United States vessels to the Commissioners of Quarantine was passed. Mr. Garfield offered a bill to establish a National Bureau of Education. Referred to a Select Committee. A bill was passed increasing the clerical force in the Post-office Department. A joint resolution was passed authorizing a commission to be appointed to select a site for a Post-office and United States Courts in New York city, and to report the cost to the Postmaster-General and Secretary of the Interior. The Senate bill to authorize the sale of postage stamps on credit in the Southern States was discussed, without result. The Michigan contested election case was resumed, the question turning upon the validity of soldiers' votes, given in camp in the South, in pursuance of an act of the Legislature of Michigan. The House affirmed the validity of the election of the sitting member, Mr. Trowbridge (Rep.), by a vote of 108 to 30. The consideration of the bankrupt bill was resumed. Mr. Stevens opposed it on the ground that "all rebellion is in debt to us, and this is not the time to free them from their debts."

February 15.—Mr. Wade presented the petition of 500 colored soldiers in the regular army, praying for the same rights as are accorded to white men. Referred. Also a memorial of the Friends' Association, of Philadelphia, praying that the right of suffrage be conferred without distinction of color. Referred. Also resolutions of the Legislature of Ohio against the assumption of the war debts of the States by the general Government. Mr. Sumner presented the memorial of George T. Downing, Fred. Douglass, and other colored citizens of the United States, protesting against the constitutional amendment now pending, as introducing, for the first time, into the Constitution a grant to disfranchise men on the ground of race or color. Laid on the table. The bill to increase and fix the military peace establishment was taken up, but, without acting upon it, the Senate resumed the order of the day, being the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Williams, of Oregon, argued in favor of it as the best measure before the Senate. He was for proceeding slowly in the work of reconstruction, and thought the President had pardoned far too many rebels. He did not think the negro now fit to vote, nor his master either. The Senate passed a bill to prevent and punish kidnapping of the freedmen, by a fine of from \$500 to \$5,000, and imprisonment not exceeding five years.

In the House, the miscellaneous appropriation bill, to meet deficiencies of the current fiscal year, was considered and amended. Messrs. Newell, Strouse, and Deftrees made speeches upon reconstruction.

February 16.—In the Senate, Mr. Howard presented the memorial of 175 citizens of Alexandria (Va.), and eleven other petitions from that State, in favor of the establishment of a territorial government for that State. Referred. A bill was reported granting lands to the Iron Mountain RR. Co., of Missouri. The Senate passed the bill to extend the benefits of the pension laws to artificers in the service of the United States. Also the bill relating to the Court of Claims, and providing for an appeal to the Supreme Court in certain cases. The Committee on Commerce reported a bill granting to the International Ocean Telegraph Company the exclusive right for twenty-five years to lay and operate telegraphic cables from the United States to the West India Islands. Laid over. The proposed constitutional amendment was taken up. Mr. Hendricks opposed it, arguing that the proposition did not rest the right of representation upon population, nor upon property, nor upon voters; that it was a proposition to perpetuate the power of the Republican party, and intended as a punishment to the Southern States. Adjourned to February 19.

In the House, a bill was offered and referred to punish the crime of throwing trains from railroad tracks. Also, to punish larcenies and robberies of securities and other property belonging to the United States. Also, a bill to establish United States revenue courts. Also, a bill to reimburse the loyal States for debts contracted in support of the war. A resolution was passed to enquire into the expediency of making an appropriation for a medical and surgical history of the rebellion, to be compiled by the Surgeon-General of the United States. A bill to establish a uniform system of sewerage in the city of Washington was referred. The rest of the day was consumed upon the contested election case of Kountz vs. Coffroth, each claiming to represent the sixteenth Pennsylvania District.

February 17.—The Senate was not in session.

In the House no business was transacted, but speeches on reconstruction were made by Messrs. Cook, Lawrence, and Cullom. Adjourned to February 19.

THE FREEDMEN.

GEN. SWAYNE reports from Alabama that the prompt arrest of men, in various counties, for plundering and otherwise abusing negroes has had an excellent effect. He joins with his fellow assistant commissioners in protesting emphatically against the removal of the troops, and urges the superior advantages afforded by cavalry over infantry garrisons. Gov. Patton has manifested his determination to co-operate

heartily with the Bureau by vetoing numerous objectionable bills sent him by the State Legislature. That body has appropriated one million dollars, contingent, for the relief of destitute inhabitants. The United States will assist with a limited number of rations. The State is quieting down, and if loyal sentiment is not decidedly on the increase, there is an abatement in what the agents of the Bureau feel bound to repress. The commingling of the freed people during the holidays caused a spread of contagious diseases, especially small-pox, but their progress has been everywhere stayed by the exertions of the medical officer.

Gen. W. P. Richardson, commanding the military district of eastern South Carolina, has exercised a very happy influence on the relations between the planters and the freedmen, taking as his guide the views promulgated by Gen. Howard in his Charleston letter of Oct. 24.

The January report for the District of Columbia shows that there are forty-five colored schools now in operation, with one hundred and six teachers and fifty-five hundred and eighty-eight pupils.

—More than four thousand colored persons, of both sexes and all ages, are attending day and night schools in Macon, Georgia. The *Messenger*, of that city, reports the freedmen of Crawford County to be working well and seemingly contented. There are no troops in the county, and the agent of the Bureau is one of the citizens.

—The minimum wages for freedmen in Texas are said to be fifteen dollars in specie per month, besides their board. Along the rivers colored laborers are working on shares, sometimes for half the crop after all expenses have been paid. The Germans are hiring them in small sets. Some planters offer a bonus of twenty dollars for good colored men. The testimony of a negro was recently admitted in a Galveston court, to convict a white man accused of having murdered a stage-driver. The attorney-general argued that the slave-code which would have excluded him had perished with slavery.

—Gen. Palmer writes to the *Louisville Journal* that, after the most careful enquiries, he has been unable to hear of a single instance in which the civil authorities have punished the authors of outrages on negroes in any part of Kentucky. He knows of the murder of two negroes by white men who are beyond the reach of justice because of the legal incompetency of colored persons as witnesses. Gen. Fisk is said to have received by a single mail letters reporting fifty-two distinct outrages on freedmen in that State. The accounts were wholly from citizens of Kentucky, men of respectability and standing, who were appointed agents of the Bureau on the recommendation of members of the Legislature.

—It appears that the rumor concerning the assault on Rev. Horace James, in Washington, North Carolina, was without foundation. Gov. Graham has written a letter favoring the admission of negroes to the courts "on the higher ground of right." The House of Commons, which had voted to deny them this right, reversed their action, after a very full and interesting debate, by a vote of 56 to 47.

—Gen. Howard delivered an address on the freedmen at the Cooper Institute in this city on Saturday evening, under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association. It was a dispassionate, unbiased review of the task imposed upon the Bureau as soon as it was established, of its subsequent well-rewarded efforts to restore the material prosperity of the South by encouraging the freedmen in the ways of thrift and industry, and of the present attitude of the Southern people toward their late slaves. His humane and philanthropic remarks were fully responded to by the audience. Mr. Greeley gave a fitting close to the meeting in a few words of exhortation not to suffer the great work of elevating and protecting the freedmen to fail, whatever might be the fate of the Bureau or of any other favorite instrumentality.

Minor Topics.

Four columns of the *National Intelligencer* of February 8 were occupied by a letter dated November 25, 1865, from Dr. J. C. Nott, M.D., of Mobile, to Gen. Howard, written to prove that the negroes have always been, are, and will always be, an inferior race. The first position

of the Southerner is always on high moral grounds; Dr. Nott therefore calls the attention of Gen. Howard to the gross injustice of the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau, of calling upon the South to educate and support the blacks whom we have turned loose upon them, of a burthen thrown by us upon their shoulders, exhausted as they are by a war waged against them by us. "By what moral right do you impose such terms upon us?" he asks, and states that the Bureau is the most mischievous institution ever established in this country, a remark which, he rather unnecessarily adds, surprised Gen. Howard when he heard it from the doctor's lips in Mobile. Indeed, we infer from the conversation with the general, which he reports, that he must have surprised him very often. "You remarked to me, among other things, that you had never seen a people more anxious for education than the 'people of Alabama.' There was something in your manner that struck me, and I asked you if you meant by the 'people of Alabama' the negroes of Alabama." You hesitated, and replied, 'I said the people of Alabama.' I rejoined, 'Let me understand you; do you mean by the people of Alabama the freedmen of Alabama?' To which you replied, 'I do.'" This Dr. Nott says was an insult, and it is certainly easy to understand his difficulty in believing that the white people of Alabama were desirous of education. He had lived too long in the State to credit such a report.

The historical and physiological arguments on which Dr. Nott relies are, first, that the negroes have always been an inferior and degraded race, hence that they must leave the country or be reduced to slavery; second, that they have much smaller brains than the Caucasians, hence that their inferiority is stamped upon them for ever. The late Dr. Morton, of Philadelphia, collected about a thousand skulls, measured them carefully, and arrived at certain results as to the average size of the brain of different races. Only two of these measurements we think it is worth while to give:

	Mean cubic inches.
Negroes,	83
Ancient Egyptians,	80
	—
Cubic inches in favor of the negro,	03

Now these three inches the negro may waste, if he please, in the posterior part of the brain, which he is said to be in the habit of doing, and still have as much brain as the ancient Egyptian, a race whose high state of civilization Dr. Nott insists upon. The only want of logic apparent in this craniometry is in taking the mean as test. Let us rather apply it to the individual. For instance, let there be in every county in the South a craniometer; let every one over twenty-one years of age be forced to report himself for measurement. If he falls below say eighty-four inches, be he Malay, Tartar, Negro, Fellah, Mongol, or Taltecan, let him be labelled servant; let those who can boast of eighty-four and upwards be masters. This scheme affords an easy method of utilizing that hitherto useless, idle, and thriftless part of our population, the idiots; they would probably be found in most instances to fall below the standard, or the law might by presumption assume incontrovertibly that the idiot's brain was always less than eighty-four inches, and thus time and money now thrown away in attempting to educate and elevate this irretrievably ignorant class (which has never in the history of man risen to any dignified position) would be saved. Happy, they would till the soil and sing the joyful song of the slave.

It would be as well to deduct always the cubic contents of the posterior lobes; thus, if the total be eighty-four inches, but those lobes should measure six inches, seventy-eight would be the true register. If this method should be thought too rude, a more perfect scheme would be to prescribe a certain number of classes—six might be found sufficient—the first, from the ninety inch up, to be the priestly and political class; the second, eighty-eight to ninety inch, to be the legal and medicinal; the third, eighty-seven to eighty-eight inch, the merchants; and so on down to eighty-three and under, the agriculturists. A registration office for foreigners should be established, lest confusion should arise, and we should have eighty-three inch emigrants going into the church, or eighty-seven inch ones attempting law.

Dr. Nott makes some statements so new and important that they deserve attention. He says that the colored preachers are the worst class in the South; that the negro who cannot read and write is more

moral than one who can; that the recent Jamaica troubles were caused by the colored preachers; that Frederick Douglass is a pestilent fellow and spits out the venom of a blackguard; that the negroes make their nearest approach to civilization in slavery; that they do not take care of each other in sickness and that parents neglect their children; that the white people of the South profess the same religion as those of the North. This last we do not understand at all; Christianity, without reference to race or color, is the religion of the North.

The conclusion is, that the Freedmen's Bureau and United State troops (particularly blacks) must be removed as speedily as possible from the South, and the relations between the races be left to settle themselves—and then the Southerners must be assisted in feeding and clothing colored paupers. It is only fair to state that Dr. Nott is an emancipationist at heart, but believes liberty for the blacks in the United States is such a curse that he has always opposed it.

MR. SAULSBURY, of Delaware, with that thirst for knowledge for which he has always been distinguished, enquired last week, in the Senate, if anybody knew what authority there was for calling negroes "colored" people. The authority is usage, and there is none better. The term is a euphemism into which people have been gradually drifting in order to avoid the tinge of contemptuousness which the term "nigger" has gradually communicated to that in itself perfectly proper term, negro. The process by which the change has been effected is one which may be witnessed in the case of many other terms. How few people live in houses; how many "reside" in "residences" or "mansions." How few schools there are left; how many "academies," and "institutes," and "establishments." The race of women is nearly extinct, while "ladies" swarm all over the land. Such a thing as a fowl is now hardly ever seen on a dinner-table; the oldest cock that is ever served up is sure to be a "chicken." Mutton, too, is becoming scarcer and scarcer, "lamb" more plentiful. There has not been for many a day such a thing in the United States as a storekeeper or shopkeeper; the smallest pedlar is now a "merchant." We hardly ever hear of anybody in the newspapers, not a day laborer, who does not "move in the very best society" and who does not boast "fine talents and dignified manners." Nobody now delivers a speech or an address on any set occasion; he delivers an "oration." The President is fast ceasing to be President, having been promoted to the office of "Our Chief Magistrate." There are even very few men of moderate attainments; most men who lay claim to anything beyond a common school education, and are not actually engaged in business, are spoken of as "ripe scholars," and if they at the same time do not spit or chew, and abstain from morning "drinks," they become "accomplished gentlemen." If anybody advocates negro suffrage, he "takes his stand on the platform of the brotherhood of man." Stewed oysters and chicken salad are neither a supper nor a lunch, but an "elegant collation." Sermons are nearly all—or at least all those that are considered worth speaking of—"powerful discourses." Even wives are gradually disappearing; men write themselves down in the hotel books as being accompanied by their "ladies," whatever that may mean. In most parts of the West even "academies" and "institutes" bid fair to become extinct, their places being taken by "universities." No girl now ever leaves school; she "graduates." Inns and taverns have disappeared long ago; we find nothing but "hotels" in all directions. There are even signs that bar-rooms will soon be superseded by "sample-rooms." The process has already begun in New York. People do not teach things now; they are "professors" of them. Corn-doctors are "chiroprodists." Barbers are not to be found in any of the large cities, while "hair-dressers" abound. Members of Congress and politicians even are becoming somewhat rare. They are gradually becoming "statesmen." Some people think we are falling off in our manners, but in our language at least the "high polite" was never more successfully cultivated.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE FOR STATE CONVENTIONS.

THERE is an old story to the effect that a number of philosophers disputed vehemently as to the reason why a tub of water with a fish in it weighed no more than a like quantity of water *without* any fish. They argued the matter orally, in writing, and in print. There were at least seven distinct theories upon the subject, each of which was ably maintained and bitterly opposed. Long was the contest and doubtful the result, until, at last, a simple-minded man suggested that none of the disputants had ever weighed the two tubs, and that it might be well to do so before carrying the argument further. The advice, though at first received with scorn, was ultimately followed. The philosophers assembled in conclave. Two tubs were produced, filled with water, placed in the scales, and their weight equalized to a hair. With careful hand the simple man placed a large fish in one of the tubs, when lo! instantly the scale descended, and the cause of controversy was found to have no existence.

The moral of this story has had a thousand applications, and will bear yet another. The great controversy upon the question of suffrage in the Southern States has been conducted throughout upon the same principle as that which governed the philosophers in dealing with the fish question. It has been quietly assumed, as the very basis of argument on all sides, that free American citizens of African descent had no right to vote at any election whatever in any of the so-called Confederate States, unless such right should be conferred upon them by the express authority of the United States. Or, at the very least, it has been taken for granted that they could not be deemed voters under any circumstances so long as the constitutions and laws of these States, as they existed in 1860, remained in force. Not only has this been the basis of President Johnson's action, but even Senator Sumner has accepted it without question. All the argument upon the subject has been either in favor of or against *conferring* suffrage upon the negro. No statesman has even seemed to think that the constitutions of 1860 can be recognized, and yet the negro have any right to vote.

Against such a weight of authority it requires some courage to hint that the powers that be have not looked into the foundation of their arguments, or, to revert to our story, have not "weighed their fish." Yet such appears to be the fact. Both sides have overlooked a consideration vital to the case.

President Johnson has acted upon the theory that the States in rebellion did not lose their corporate existence thereby, but that all their acts since the ordinances of secession were passed have been utterly void. He has, therefore, directed each State to start from the point of secession, as though all the intervening time had been a blank; and he has assumed that the constitutions and laws then in force are still existing. He disclaims any right upon his part to add to the number of voters in these States, though he has excluded many from voting.

Let us, for the purpose of this argument, accept every one of these acts and doctrines of the President. Let us assume that his proclamations were correct in every detail. Bearing in mind that the people of each State were summoned to elect not a governor, not a legislature, but simply *delegates to a constitutional convention*, let us enquire who, under these proclamations, were entitled to vote:

1. It must be taken for granted, in this discussion, that free colored persons of American birth are American citizens. The Federal Government has explicitly and solemnly recognized them as such. The Attorney-General has given his formal opinion to that effect, and the Secretary of State has issued passports accordingly.

2. It must be further assumed that all the colored people of the lately rebellious States have been free for a long time past. The Executive Department so declared them in 1863, and has ever since maintained the validity of that declaration.

3. In no one of these States was there, at the time of its revolt, any

regulation concerning the qualifications of electors for *delegates to a State convention* either in its constitution or statutes. Whenever heretofore a State convention has been called, it has been by a special statute, prescribing the qualifications of electors for that occasion only, and expiring with that occasion. We do not believe that there is a general law upon the subject in any State, and we are certain that there is none such in any of the "seceded" States.

In North and South Carolina and Georgia the constitutions (in 1860) did not declare the qualifications of electors for any offices other than governor and legislature. The right of suffrage for inferior officers has been regulated purely by statutes.

In Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, and some other States, the constitutions declare that certain persons shall be "qualified electors," and that certain officers shall be chosen by these electors. But these constitutions do not in terms undertake to regulate elections for delegates to State conventions, and, for reasons which, we shall presently show, cannot be extended thereto by implication.

4. The theory of government upon which all the States have acted since 1776 is, that no constitution, charter, or law can fetter the right of the people of each State by the action of a convention to frame their fundamental law anew from time to time at their discretion. The constitution of this State, adopted in 1821, provided a single method of amendment, which, by all rules of legal interpretation, excluded amendment in any other mode. Yet the people entirely disregarded this provision, and in 1846 summoned and held a convention, which framed a new constitution. Some conservatives insisted that this action was unconstitutional, and so, as a matter of fact, it was. But the old constitution had no power to restrain the action of the people, and was rightfully disregarded. Some State constitutions have even gone so far as to prohibit the holding of conventions except at specified times, but these restrictions have been uniformly disregarded.

The principle upon which all these proceedings are based is, that the people are supreme over all laws, organic or otherwise. So long as the people act through a legislature, they act *under* the constitution, and are bound by it. But when they act through a convention, they are *above* the constitution, and meet for the very purpose of abrogating it. The convention is, in short, the embodiment of the people in the exercise of their right of revolution, and this is the revolution to which the American doctrine of government asserts the popular right.

This doctrine is explicitly asserted by the constitutions of most of the Western and Southern States, including Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas.

5. If we are correct thus far, it follows (and is, we think, indisputable) that the election of a State convention is not controlled by the State constitution, as to the time or manner of election, the qualifications of electors, or the qualifications of members. In short, the members of a convention are not officers under the constitution, but are altogether above it; and the people, in choosing them, are equally free from its restrictions.

6. There being no law of any kind in force in any Southern State regulating the right of suffrage for a convention, it remains to be asked by what right free colored men were excluded from voting at the elections recently held. No legislature, national or local, authorized it. Even usage cannot justify their exclusion in North Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia, for they voted there for delegates to the conventions which framed the constitutions existing in 1860. Besides, a usage which should have such a tremendous effect must be a universal and immemorial one, whereas colored men have always had a right to vote in seven States, and had originally such right in nearly all the old thirteen States. It appears, then, that this exclusion was the act of the provisional governors—officers unknown to the law and invested with no shadow of authority over the subject.

7. The sum of the whole matter is, that if the proclamations of President Johnson had been properly interpreted, all male citizens of sound mind, twenty-one years of age, and permanent residents of the State, would have been allowed to vote, upon taking the prescribed oath.

8. For examples which show that the doctrines here presented are not new, except in their application to the colored race, we cite the discussions in the Dorr controversy of 1842, the Michigan case in 1836,

the Lecompton case in 1853, the Topeka case in 1856, and, above all, the action of California in 1850. California had laws regulating the manner of electing public officers which were in force in 1849. Yet a State convention was elected by the votes of men nine-tenths of whom had no right to vote under those laws, nor would have had, if the existing laws of California had then been in force. Nevertheless, the action of the convention thus elected was sustained by the people and by Congress, and is now the foundation of California's existence as a State.

9. The exclusion of colored men from voting in Georgia was a usurpation of peculiar magnitude. The constitution of that State, as it existed in 1860, did not exclude colored citizens from the right of suffrage for any office whatever. Yet they were not allowed to vote at the recent elections.

We have thus briefly gone over the main branches of our argument. It might be amplified by illustrations from the history of several States, and by citations from eminent authorities. But it is unnecessary to add more until that which is already stated has been controverted. Nor will we at present undertake to define the probable result of the practical enforcement of these doctrines. They might partially fail to accomplish the desired result. Conventions thus elected might impose restrictions upon their constituents. But whether they should do too much or too little cannot affect the question of absolute right which is involved. And if the conservatives of the North are really anxious to abstain from tampering with the suffrage, and to leave it to be regulated by the existing law, here is a path of unquestionable legality upon which all honest conservatives and radicals may agree.

It may be said that our argument is of little importance now that new constitutions have been adopted in all the Southern States. But as long as Congress refuses to consider these constitutions as satisfactory, and refuses to re-admit the revolted States under them, and has not decided the conditions on which they may be admitted, everything which might ever be done, may still be done, or, at all events, ought to be considered, if the Committee on Reconstruction are ever to agree upon any general plan.

MR. BANCROFT'S EULOGY.

MR. BANCROFT delivered in due course the funeral oration at the memorial services in honor of Abraham Lincoln, at Washington, last week. The greatest fault of the address is that there was very little in it about Lincoln. One or two facts about his birth, parentage, and education; a few sentences about his journey to Washington in 1861, and his inauguration; a brief analysis of his character at the close—in short, about two-fifths of the speech is all that has any more bearing on the life and official career of the late President than on those of Andrew Johnson or General Grant. There is no public ceremonial connected with the war, from the celebration of an anniversary to the interment of a hero, for which the remainder of the address might not be made to serve with perfect appropriateness.

We fear, therefore, that a large body of persons who are now tolerably familiar with the origin of the republic, and with the influences which have presided over its growth; with the causes of slavery and the feelings which the fathers entertained towards it, and who have got an inkling, since the outbreak of the war, of the manner in which England and France conducted themselves towards us during its progress, will wish that the orator had expended a little more of his analysis and description on Mr. Lincoln, and a little less on the condition of the civilized world during the century preceding his birth. One of the most singular of the social phenomena of our day is, that the reluctance of orators and writers to give the public credit for being tolerably well informed seems to grow in the direct ratio of the diffusion of education. There is, probably, no country in the world in which so intimate a knowledge, at least of their own history, may be safely imputed, even to a popular audience, as in this; but there is, perhaps, none in which most speakers more lovingly hug the assumption that they cannot safely discourse on any theme without starting either from Plymouth Rock or the Declaration of Independence. We doubt if there be anybody in the United States capable of reading the English language, who does not possess a fair acquaintance with the circumstances which led to the American Revolution and the formation of the present Government, as well as with those which made the election of Mr. Lincoln

the signal for the outbreak of the rebellion; and even if there be any such person, we think the nature of the occasion would have justified Mr. Bancroft in ignoring his existence.

For much the same reason we doubt the propriety of repeating to the city and the world the indictment against France and England. It was every word of it true, too true; but there are occasions when the time may be better spent than in reading it over. Neither France nor England appreciated Mr. Lincoln during his life; but Mr. Lincoln would certainly have been none the better of their doing so, and their failure to do so certainly exercised no influence on his character or conduct. It was just on this very point that he showed his immense superiority to most of his admirers. There was nothing in which the greatness of his soul, that moral dignity of his which made him not only the foremost man of his age but one of its truest gentlemen, was better illustrated than in the wonderful abstinence from railing which he displayed during the whole period of his administration, and under circumstances, too, of unheard-of provocation. He had his private opinion, we believe, of France and England, and it was not complimentary to either of them; but he never spread it out in his state papers. The insensate abuse of their press, and the insensate prophecies and admonitions of their statesmen, never wrung from him a single indication of anger or even of pique. And we cannot help believing that if it were permitted to him to be present at his own funeral rites, there could hardly be any feature of the proceedings less grateful to him than such a "scathing" exposure of the misdeeds of his enemies as that to which Mr. Bancroft treated the public.

Nor can we say we consider the comparison with Lord Palmerston very happy. Comparisons are always odious, and they are doubly odious in a funeral eulogy. Lincoln was so rich in glory that he could well afford to dispense with that infinitesimal addition that Mr. Bancroft made to it, by showing how far short Palmerston fell of reaching his moral level. In fact, we do not know what there was in the position or career of the two men to suggest the comparison except that both lived about the same time, and both occupied the highest positions in the government of their respective countries, and both died within the same year and had public funerals. Palmerston, it is true, was greatly admired by the English people, but he certainly was not revered; and, in order to make him a proper object of comparison with Lincoln, he ought to have been charged with the duty of carrying England through a period of revolution, and have either succeeded or failed in it. That he would have failed in it, we have no sort of doubt. Nations do not fling themselves in their agony on natures as cold and shallow as his; but if he had had to encounter the ordeal, he would certainly have furnished stronger proofs than Mr. Bancroft was able to cull from his singularly tame and spiritless existence, of the immense superiority in all the higher qualities of the statesman's character possessed by the poor Illinois rail-splitter. As it is, Mr. Lincoln might as well have been compared to anybody who was premier in England for the last sixty years. To bring out the great lines of his career in full relief, he has to be set side by side with Cromwell, or Napoleon, or Cavour, or Washington, or, let us add, Jefferson Davis. It is only when there is something common to two men, either in their circumstances or history, that there is any profit to be got from contrasting them. There might be a very fine contrast drawn between Marshal Radetzki and Garibaldi, but what would it prove?

Criticism of a funeral oration is always an ungrateful, and generally an unnecessary, task, and if Mr. Bancroft's address had been simply this funeral oration, we should have been very well content to have refrained from comment on it. But in reality his address was rather a sketch of American history during the last eighty years, interspersed with digressions upon the polity and condition of neighboring nations, than what it professed to be—an official expression of American feeling over the grave of one who was, save Washington, the best beloved and most sorely tried of our Presidents. The result has been that it cannot, we think, be pronounced a success, either as a funeral oration or as a historical study. There is neither feeling nor concentration enough in it for the one, nor accuracy nor impartiality enough in it for the other. Of Lincoln we only get a dim glimpse through a mist of disquisition and invective, and of the history of slavery and of the war we only get a rough, though gaudy, sketch. That Mr. Bancroft is disposed

to be thankful for "sma' mercies," we infer from the fact that he dwells with magniloquent satisfaction on the circumstance that Prince Kung of China testified his sympathy with our Government by shutting out the rebel privateers from the imperial ports. We confess we should take greater comfort in this mark of esteem if we had the smallest assurance that Prince Kung had the least idea what our war was about, cared one straw which side won, and was not ready to acknowledge whichever got the upper hand as the legitimate power, with both solar and lunar impartiality. Prince Kung's adhesion to our cause we judge to have been of about the same value to us as that of the "father-in-law of Prince Metternich," whose approval of President Lincoln was announced in leaded type two years ago by the daily papers, though the silence which was preserved with regard to the sentiments of his Highness's mother-in-law leads us to fear that our lamented President died in the shadow of that lady's displeasure.

THE FUTURE OF GREAT CITIES.

THE immense proportions which great cities are assuming in all civilized countries promises to make the arrangement and management of them the most important of all the problems of social science. It is a problem, too, which the experience of mankind offers little or no help in solving. The population of the most famous cities of the ancient world has dwindled, in spite of the romancing of the old writers and modern novelists, into what we consider insignificance, under the hammer of modern criticism. Even ancient Rome would, in number of inhabitants, make in our day only a city of the third order. Magnificent as were its appliances for the supply of water and for drainage, its engineers had no such demands made on their skill and ingenuity as those of the great modern capitals have to meet.

The proportions to which London, New York, and Paris have already attained must be ascribed mainly to the increased facilities for locomotion and for the transmission of news afforded by steam and the telegraph; and yet we are only just beginning to see what railways and steamboats may be made to accomplish. They have built up great cities, and are building them up with a rapidity which is almost appalling, by simply giving persons greater liberty in the choice of their place of residence, and enabling goods to be distributed over wide tracts of country from one or two great depots instead of a dozen.

This tendency to concentration in commerce is accompanied by a corresponding tendency in society, especially amongst the wealthy classes. All over the world people who can afford it, or can compass it in any way, are moving into the great cities, and the country is being more and more abandoned to the poorer classes. There was in most European countries even half a century ago what was called "good society" in every county and province, composed of gentry resident on their estates throughout the year, and rarely visiting the capital. No such thing is now to be met with. Country life in England for the few families who still cling to it has become insufferably dull, except in the hunting season. In France it no longer exists at all. Wealth, fashion, intellect, and industry all crowd into the capital.

In America the distaste for country life seems to increase with every generation. This distaste has been so often commented on, explained, and deplored that we need only mention it. Every farmer's son and daughter, many farmers themselves, want to get to New York, and are willing to strive there for social preferment in almost any capacity. We heard, the other day, of a man sixty years old selling his paternal acres on the Hudson, an excellent farm, including the old house in which he was born, and coming to this city to fill the place of conductor on one of the street railroads. Nor is there the slightest probability that this tendency will not rather increase than diminish.

The responsibility of making the necessary provision in advance for this state of things, seems not to be felt in the slightest degree. On the contrary, with regard to nearly all questions of city improvement, the most indolent, the most careless, the most temporizing policy generally rules. The engineers employed to plan our city improvements are, nine times out of ten, loafing politicians, both unwilling and incompetent to devise anything original, comprehensive, and far-reaching. We are not even beginning to meet the most obvious demands

of our present population. The means provided for getting rid of municipal filth, for instance, are, in every American city, but most of all in the largest, perfectly contemptible. They do not meet the necessities of the case in the present day as well as those in use fifty years ago met the necessities of that day. What is before us is better seen in London and Paris than anywhere else. Large parts of both of these cities are being completely reconstructed, at an expense of many millions, to remedy faults in their original laying out. Yet these same faults and far worse faults may be found in the streets now being laid out in New York, Chicago, and San Francisco.

The number of fares collected on the street railroads and omnibuses of New York last year was much more than the number of the inhabitants of the United States, yet the accommodation of vehicles was cruelly inadequate to the demand, and the whole arrangements were supremely inefficient, slow, and to the last degree uncomfortable. Various projects are discussed for increasing the amount of accommodation, none for improving its comfort, and none of the schemes yet proposed contemplate any considerable increase in the demand. Yet before the least of them can be carried out this demand is likely to be nearly doubled.

The most serious problem of all connected with city life is undoubtedly the provision of dwellings for the working classes in the neighborhood of their work. Supposing ever so many railroads or boats to be provided, there will always be in every large city an immense number of persons whose means will not permit them, even if their occupations do, to live far from the scene of their daily toil. And even if they possess the means, they will not possess the time to go into the country. Two hours, even, taken out of a working-man's leisure for travelling to and fro, and thus lost to social enjoyment, would be a serious blow to his comfort, and this is, nevertheless, the very least space of time which it must be expected to take to reach the suburbs of any great city hereafter, from the business centres, and get back again.

Consequently it seems plain that the plan of covering an immense area with separate houses, and giving each family a large number of feet from the earth up to the sky, must ere long be abandoned, if not by all, by nearly all. We must go up into the air more than we do now. Families must live above or below each other, and not next door. In other words, we must give up owning "houses and lots," and fall back on the system of "flats" so long in use in France and Scotland. The great objection to it is the common staircase, but an ingenious suggestion has been made that we should have streets in the air—that houses should be built immensely high, and that iron galleries should run along each story, bridging the streets between the blocks, forming a thoroughfare on which each family might have an outside door, and on which there might even be stores, and on which people might saunter, shop, and promenade, leaving the noisy earth to the vehicles and more ponderous kinds of business. There might be omnibus elevators also at certain intervals to carry people up and down. The plan is well worth studying by those who are interested in the welfare, both moral and physical, of the unborn as well as the living millions who are fated for weal or woe to live and die in the great cities, and who must find their health and happiness far away from green fields or purling brooks. One thing is certain, that the streets of New York or London will present a century hence an appearance widely different from that with which the present generation is familiar.

TOO MUCH OF A GOOD THING.

MAKING due allowance for the motives of those whose visits to the White House are now daily chronicled for whom it may concern, we think that they are guilty of no little imposition on the President and the public. Not that his accessibility is in itself to be deprecated. It is of too recent a date to be lightly given up, and, besides, it has its uses. Six years and more ago, indeed, a citizen jealous of his good repute might well have hesitated to be known as having called on what was by courtesy styled the head of the nation; for, as advice must have been thrown away on one who was only nominally a ruler, he would have incurred the suspicion of friendship or complicity, which was no slight matter in the case of a Buchanan or a

Pierce. And, fortunately, if honest men desired to avoid having anything to do with these functionaries, they were favored by the natural exclusiveness of an Executive controlled by a slaveholding aristocracy, not less than by his powerlessness in a time of peace. But on the accession of Mr. Lincoln all this was changed. Democracy had at last elected its candidate. In the crisis which ensued there was safety in the multitude of counsellors. The absolute authority with which the President was invested could neither have been so effectively exercised nor with so little odium if he had refused to listen to the instructions, the complaints, and even the menaces from every quarter. That the privilege accorded was incessantly abused by the impertinent, was to be expected; that it was the safety-valve of a vast amount of conceit and self-importance, we all know; that it has come to be looked upon as a popular prerogative, though in quite an altered condition of affairs, the present Administration is witness.

It must be admitted that, apart from the peculiar circumstances of his promotion, President Johnson is responsible for a considerable share of the visitations which have consumed his leisure. Had he promptly surrendered to Congress the task of re-organizing the society which rebellion had disintegrated, men would not have been so solicitous to press their opinions and grievances upon him. He would have escaped promulgating a policy sure to produce contention at the North, and to subject him to "elderlings" from one party and adulation from the opposite. As it is, the not unwelcome delegations which paid their respects to him immediately after the assassination, have been followed by an almost steady stream of visitors, beginning with the host of pardon-seekers, and ending (we use the expression relatively) with the varied calls of the past fortnight.

We appeal to the "distinguished senators" who hold conversations with Mr. Johnson, to the Master Cokers who sing their little songs to him, to the citizens of this or that ambitious Territory, to the members of dissatisfied churches, to our colored friends themselves, who all and several manage to take up a good deal of his time, and to get his remarks, apothegms, and speeches transmitted by electric telegraph all over the Union,—we appeal, we say, to these individuals and committees to have some consideration alike for him and for the community at large. Let them remember that in these days of the Associated Press, often made a semi-official medium during the past five years, there is nothing hidden which shall not be revealed. Since the President has so willed it, his words are anxiously listened for by the millions of the North and South, and if spoken they will be overheard and repeated throughout the nation. Of all the gossip for which our newspapers expend their capital, that from the White House is most certain of being read. Coming at proper intervals it would have a piquant flavor, but retailed every week, and almost every day, it begins to be somewhat of an infliction.

We are aware these gentry to whom we address our reproaches may retort that again the President is at fault; that even if they are long-winded, he might, without offence, indulge in optional brevity. This does not excuse them. With no disrespect to Mr. Johnson, we cannot withhold the only too common observation, that he lacks the happy faculty possessed by his predecessor in so eminent a degree—whose sayings were ever terse, pithy, and compact, and compare with those of the Tennessean much as did his immortal speech at Gettysburg with Mr. Everett's oration. When the new-made President assured and reassured the representatives of the loyal States that treason was a crime that must be punished as a crime, there was strength and inspiration in the repetition. Latterly his iteration has got to be excessive. It is enough to be told once—we were all but going to say, too much—that he is opposed to negro suffrage in the District of Columbia, that he has always been a friend of the colored man, that he anticipates a war of races, that he has reached the pinnacle of his ambition, etc., etc. We do not blame him for being prolix, but we do expostulate with those who, knowing his weakness, tempt him to so frequent an exhibition of it. It is appalling to estimate the amount of trouble this causes—to your reporter, who takes down his every word; to the President himself, if he cares to revise what he has said; to the telegraphic operators, a hundred or more; to the night editors and the printers; and, last but by no means least, to the readers of the newspapers, who must

ponder the entire document if only to discover that it does not weigh an idea more than the last previous utterance from the same source.

All these processes require time, from the principal actors downward; and time costs more than money at this juncture. Congress could not for ever be taking recesses in honor of successful generals who are introduced there, and neither can the President be interrupted without a loss to the nation beside which his personal annoyance is of little account. If he has duties, it is plain he cannot attend to them faithfully. If he has powers—and he has some of the highest—he may be led to exercise them without the necessary deliberation. When so many interests hang upon his most trivial declarations, it is important that these should not be crude and ill-digested, as they are apt to be when unexpectedly elicited from him. Great harm may follow from a chance indiscretion on his part, and at all events he is constantly exposed to the awkward disadvantage apparent in his interview with the colored deputation, whose well-written reply contrasted too palpably with his confused and rambling delivery. As far as possible, therefore, he has a right to be protected from slips of the tongue. He and the people will be gainers if he writes ten messages for every speech likely to transpire, and if bores, well-intentioned and otherwise, will give him time to study his proper domain, arrange his thoughts strictly and concisely, and bend all his magnificent energies to the restoration of the Republic.

THE APPLAUSE FROM THE OTHER SIDE.

PHILOSOPHERS of all generations, from Confucius to Rochefoucauld, have cautioned mankind against overlooking the wholesome lessons to be drawn from the praise of their foes.

At a time when the line between difficult justice and facile expediency is more than ever confused and blurred; a time when the instincts of politicians are prompting them to avail of the languor which follows exertion—to trade on the generosity which is begotten of victory—through coalitions which shall ensure their own advancement to power; a time when the very grandeur of the national achievement is so dazzling to our eyes that we may fail to see, or see but imperfectly, the duty and the means of reaping its legitimate and most righteous fruits—at such a time it becomes instructive in a high degree to observe the tone of those English organs of opinion which, whether on one side or the other, were such earnestly interested spectators of, and commentators upon, our civil war.

These organs may have been, in some instances, mistaken in their facts. At a period of great excitement, when partizanship respecting our quarrel ran high, and its bearing upon or analogies to English domestic questions were perhaps somewhat exaggerated, it was natural that wishes should often father thoughts, and that a false expectation touching ultimate results should correspond, in general acceptance, with the superior numbers or influence of those who were opposed to the national cause. Discriminating Americans make fair allowances for this, and remember with gratitude how far great earnestness and, it may be added, sheer intellectual force went towards counterbalancing the serious disadvantages under which our English friends labored. But however it may have been with details or with prophecies, the zeal of the advocates was great on both sides. There could not be a doubt as to the depth of their convictions regarding the rights of the question or the ardor of their desires as respected its settlement.

Such convictions and desires were inseparably associated in their minds with principles which they deemed of paramount importance; the association, as has been suggested, may have been carried too far; but it existed, and was perhaps inevitable. The termination of our struggle, disappointing to many, did not, however, involve any change of theories, any surcease of principles whereof the disappointed ones were advocates. Facts might no longer be strained or distorted in their support, but the theories and principles are as faithfully upheld as before; and in the expression of this fidelity is found the instruction to which we refer.

Mr. Roebuck, in a public speech made at Sheffield, and which was reported in the *London Times* of June 10, ult., said: "My reason for desiring the acknowledgment of the South was this: I wanted the

great republic of America to be split in two. I honestly and openly confess it; and if it had been so, it would have been better for us." This flagrant declaration was merely a concise and explicit epitome of the feelings which too many of the orator's countrymen had cherished, but which they were not, in general, disposed so bluntly to avow. They desired to see the United States broken into fragments, and they dwelt with force and sympathy upon what would substantially conduce to that end. They are not without hope that, in spite of our late triumph, the seeds of disintegration are still alive, if dormant, in our political soil, and that by judicious manuring and fostering they may yet fructify to our ruin. The same instincts which led to their warm espousal of the Southern cause still exist, and whatever is promulgated through their organs respecting affairs in this country is presumably faithful to them.

When we find, then, that all the leading journals of London which opposed us most bitterly in the late struggle are now equally unanimous in their view of the most important problems which we have to determine as its consequences, is it not the part of wisdom thoroughly to consider such a circumstance, to weigh carefully and to sift to the bottom all the probabilities and inferences suggested by it? It would be too sweeping and ungenerous, for example, to draw a conclusion unfavorable to President Johnson's patriotism, because all the newspapers which advocated secession now advocate what is styled his policy of reconstruction, but surely the coincidence is worthy of our careful attention. Still more significant and deserving of reflection is the circumstance that every newspaper and every man of any note in England who steadily and pertinaciously stood our friend through the hard fight is now daily expressing apprehension and anxiety with regard to our future. It is plain that those long-tried and staunch supporters of the cause which we and they thought so just are filled to-day with an honest dread lest the nation should be deprived of the tangible and only valuable results of its victory.

Now, there is a large class of persons among us who have been most unsparing and violent in their denunciations of the *Times* and *Saturday Review* for their hostile tone towards this country during the war, but who seem at present to be quite gratified and comforted to find that those presses have become the hearty endorsers of President Johnson and his policy. Such persons, and the prints which are their exponents, appear to think that the leopard may change his spots; that there is a diametric change in opinion, and yet no inconsistency, on the part of our quondam foes; that at worst there is nothing in their conduct more sinister than the mere everyday and commonplace baseness of truckling to success. Such persons, too, were ever ready to quote the *Spectator* when it combated in our behalf what time the strife was sorest, but they altogether omit to refer to the accents of grave warning and solicitude in which that publication has discussed our prospects since its definitive close.

It is, of course, quite within the bounds of possibility that British admirers of Mr. Johnson should not be absolutely inimical to the perpetuation of the Union; but surely neither they nor any one else can complain if we find a suspiciousness in the fact that avowed enemies of the Union during its battle for life should so universally step forth as eulogists of its present Chief Magistrate and his peculiar line of policy or set of principles to-day. It is conceivable that our devoted English friends may be frightened at shadows; but the unanimity of their sentiments entitles them to respect, if former services do not. We at least know that they never wished our country harm—which cannot be said of their political opponents.

Generally speaking, it is safe to believe that few radical changes of conviction have taken place in the hearts of those who command leadership on either side of the ocean. The couples may have changed places in the quadrille, but they have still the same relative situation, still the same *vis-à-vis*. They may go through all manner of bewildering evolutions, but they will still preserve the same juxtaposition and cherish the same affinity. And they are to be recognized, classed, and trusted in two categories: the one which *fears* and the other which *hopes* that the name and painted image of Liberty shall, in the greatest civil convulsion known to history, have been fought for and gained, without its spirit and essence; the one which, from its very nature,

must worship always at the simple shrine of justice; the other which, from a law equally immutable, must to the end of the chapter burn incense on the sophisticated altar of policy.

FRANCE AND AMERICA.

THE following extract from a private letter recently received from M. de Beaumont, the life-long friend of M. de Tocqueville, and his companion during his first tour in this country, is interesting as expressing the opinion upon our affairs, at the present juncture, of a class of Frenchmen whose influence on the affairs of their own country we hope to see some day regain its legitimate power:

I reproach myself for having so long delayed acknowledging the two works sent me through the American Minister, "The Story of the Great March," and the report on the sufferings of your prisoners in the hands of the Confederates.

If I have deferred thanking you, I have not delayed reading them, and once opened, I continued their perusal without allowing myself to be interrupted until I had finished them. I value them much, and shall preserve them with care. The journal of Sherman's campaign is more interesting than any romance could be, although it is simply history. If there could be collected something analogous to it relative to each of the great military operations of which America has been the theatre during the war, what a magnificent history one could write from it! and how the historian who could truly describe these combats of giants, and bring into bold relief the heroic deeds and civil virtues of your heroes, would distance the epics of antiquity and all the records of mere slaughters, ancient or modern!

I confess that if I were ten years younger, and were not intimidated by the grandeur of the enterprise, its beauty would tempt me to undertake it. But for such audacity it needs a younger hand than mine. I must limit myself to offering my best wishes to the more able historian who may take up this grand subject and immortalize himself with it.

I do not doubt that this work will be done by some one worthy of it, who will comprehend that he has not alone to recount the battles, marches, and victories, but the motives under which the war was made by a free people, the sentiments which animated them, and the passions which supported it. Assuredly what has enlisted my entire sympathy and enthusiasm in this struggle and this victory has been the triumph of the cause of humanity in the abolition of slavery; but there is one thing which has perhaps inspired even greater admiration and joy—it is that you have escaped the great danger of military usurpation, and that the day of victory has also been that of the resumption of your civil rights. All the future of American liberty, and, indeed, of the liberty of the world, centred there!

You can hardly form an idea of the grief and disappointment which the friends of absolutism in Europe feel now after having counted upon your coming under the yoke of a dictator!

Thanks to you, not merely the republican but the liberal cause still exists, and from your shores its reflection reaches ours!

How much, after the sufferings and anxieties of such a war, you must now enjoy peace and victory!

Why cannot I, by a magician's wand, be restored in 1866 to my condition in 1831 when I visited America! How I should fly to your shores, and with what happiness should I see your fine and great country and the men who to-day illustrate its honor and glory!

In the midst of all the joy and sympathy which I feel regarding your country I cannot, however, help experiencing a certain anxiety in regard to the effect of these events upon our Mexican situation, in thinking of what may happen in that quarter—in spite of the wishes of our two nations and of their governments—to produce dangerous complications. I am convinced of two things: 1st, that Napoleon, who got engaged in this enterprise in opposition to the universal sentiment of France and even of his own counsellors, sees his mistake and bitterly regrets it; 2d, his speech to the Corps Législatif signifies, I am preparing to quit Mexico—let me only have time to do so honorably!

What seems to me equally plain is that neither Mr. Johnson nor Mr. Seward means, by any ill-advised proceedings, to precipitate a war which neither France nor the Emperor desires; and that your Government, which has enough else to do besides fighting in Mexico, is well disposed to accept the pacific solution thus offered; but what I fear is, the passions of the American people and that intoxication so natural after such splendid victories. I feel that never was there a time when the united efforts of all your wise men were so necessary as now to prevent a conflict so full of sadness which would ensue between two nations whose true interests are to be friends, and yet who, once engaged in strife, would each only see its flag. May the gods avert such a future!

THE LIGHT-HOUSE.

O'er waves that murmur ever nigh
My window opening towards the deep,
The light-house with its wakeful eye
Looks into mine, that shuts to sleep.
I lose myself in idle dreams,
And wake in smiles or sighs or fright.
According to my visions' themes,
And see it shining in the night.

For ever there and still the same
 While many more besides me mark—
 On various course, with various aim—
 That light that shineth in the dark.

It draws my heart towards those who roam
 Unknown, nor to be known, by me;
 I see it and am glad, at home,
 They see it and are safe at sea.

On slumberous or on watching eyes
 It shines through all the dangerous night
 Until at length the day doth rise,
 And light is swallowed up of light.

Light of the world, incarnate Word,
 So shin'st Thou through our night of time,
 Whom freemen love to call their Lord;
 O beacon steadfast and sublime!

In temporal things—grief, joy, or care—
 Enrapt we dream, but turn to thee,
 And straightway where and what we are
 By thine unfailing radiance see.

Some see thee from life's sheltered shore;
 Some watch thee, doomed to sail life's deep,
 Whose cruel waters rage and roar,
 Or o'er sharp reefs in ambush creep.

And men of every land and speech,
 If but they have thee in their sight,
 Are bound to thee, and each to each,
 Through thee, by countless threads of light.

E. FOXTON.

THE FOOL'S PARADISE.

THE subject of railroad accommodations and refreshments must be, in great part, treated speculatively, for, in great part, railroad accommodations and refreshments exist only in the abstract. As far as this want of reality relates to accommodations, it is the fault of the railroad management; but as far as it relates to refreshments, we fear it is the fault of the public. It seems scarcely possible that a nation, not bent upon indigestion, could long endure the present arrangements for the promotion of delicate health, at the stations where the trains stop "fifteen minutes for refreshments"—and we imagine that a change will take place as soon as it is actually demanded by a contrite public appetite.

The other day an acquaintance had the misfortune to go to Boston—Boston is well enough, but the going thither is the evil—and he ran into a restaurant, near the station, to get a bite and gulp of breakfast, before setting out on that perilous journey. He secured his bite and gulp, and had a moment's leisure to attend to the fellow-sinner at his elbow, while that impenitent gave his order. In a place where he might have had steak or chop, or, at the worst, cold, choking chicken, he demanded, "A cup of coffee and a piece of apple-pie!" A human being, born in the nineteenth century of the Christian era, thought it just to offer his system a breakfast of coffee and apple-pie! As in this world many innocent persons suffer from the sins committed by others, such depravity reacts upon the whole community, corrupting the restaurateurs and debauching and destroying their customers; and we have heard of one gentleman who suffered from the evil principle of coffee and pie, for breakfast and lunch, to an almost incredible degree. He stopped at one of the appointed places for refreshment, on the Shore Line to Boston, and found that coffee and pie were the sole restoratives to be had; there was not meat, hot or cold; there were no sandwiches, there was no bread, there was, in fine, not even any water; there was but coffee and pie!

On the way to Boston you stop twenty minutes for refreshments at Springfield, and you find on either hand two small cabins, erected within the station, containing the ticket-offices, the waiting-room, and the luncheon-rooms. It is because these are rather good of their kind that we speak of them, though we do not speak of them to praise them. It is true that you are there waited upon with something like civility and promptness, and that the young ladies who preside over the coffee-pot, the tea-urn, the pie, the cake, and the fruit, are singularly free from that crushing *hauteur* of manner characteristic of young ladies in public employments. But though you have twenty minutes for refreshments, you are denied the privilege of sitting

down in these moments of restoration, and are forced to refresh yourself at a counter in the midst of a tumult of refreshment. As for the viands, they are much like the things provided everywhere for the weary traveller, and they present a variety certainly passing the standard fixed at the refreshment stations on the Shore Line. We suppose that all this is as the travelling public desires to have it, or the travelling public would have it different. But as we stood edgewise before that counter at Springfield the other day, and ate some oysters, fried each in five times his bulk of flour-batter, and washed down the repast with something that neither looked nor tasted like coffee, but was, nevertheless, so called (jocosely, it is possible, as, in cheap restaurants, pork and beans are called "woodcock"); and as we meditated the purchase of a desiccated sandwich, a vision of better things stole over us, softening and subduing us. It was the memory of a little station, somewhere on the road between Paris and St. Michel, where we stopped fifteen minutes for breakfast, one winter morning. The guards of the train cried out the time of the halt several times distinctly, and did not leave it to the intuitions of the passengers, as the conductor does in this country; and so we all got down, and went into a warm room, prettily appointed with tables to seat each four persons, and with flasks of dark wine, delicate bread, and clean napkins beside every plate. Did you care merely for coffee? They served you such coffee as might have grown on the uplands of Paradise. Did you wish something yet more satisfying? There was *bouillon*, bright as honey, clear as amber. Our appetite being for solids, they gave us a dainty cutlet, served in some delicious sauce, if it was sauce, or gravy, if it was gravy; and opened for us a flask of the dark wine, and filled us a bowl of the creamy coffee for the parting benison. There was abundant time, for the people at the station were as well prepared to receive us as if they had been making ready for us ever since we left America; as if they had grown the grape and bottled the wine expressly against our coming, and had known, to a second, when to pop the cutlet on the fire for us. It was more than satisfactory, it was flattering; and, in this way, travel is expected and complimented throughout France. The cause is plain: the French nation will not suffer outrage, and famine, and indigestion at the hands which are paid to feed it well and courteously. As soon as we make up our minds to have justice, we shall have it. We now have famine, and outrage, and indigestion because we want them. There is no sadder error than the delusion that French cooks and cooking came of themselves. The enlightened public taste created them, as with us the popular will could call something just as good into existence.

That our travelling community does not desire wholesome and savory provision against its hunger, is manifest in the sort of stuff which is brought into the cars to sell. There is no reason why the boy who relieves the tedious routine of offering magazines and illustrated newspapers to the passengers by offering them candy and tobacco in packages should not also have something besides these dainties with which to tempt appetite. Why, then, should unhappy travel have nothing else submitted to it? Unhappy travel, if candid, would confess that it wants nothing else, unless it be popcorn, which it gets; popcorn, which fills without satisfying, and makes you feel like a sack of chaff, which is the emptiest and merest of vanities. We know, of course, that flying boys appear and disappear, at the way stations, with baskets of tarts and cakes; but are they not merely a part of the great system of coffee and pie in the restaurants?

Possibly, a vague idea that journeying by railroad is a kind of festivity inspires us to live on sweetmeats and dessert, and holiday fare, while upon our travels. If this be the case, it seems to us that we are mistaken in our notions of jollity. Such mortal gaiety as properly belongs to the dance of death likewise belongs to railroad travel, but it is in no other sense festive. On the contrary, it is work, cruelly hard and extremely dangerous, not only to life and limb, but to health; and it should be a matter of serious thought before setting out on a journey whether or not the end to be accomplished justifies the means. Sometimes, however, people must travel, and as it is no longer possible to travel in stage-coaches, and as in winter it is not always practicable to journey by water, they must go by rail. A voyage to Liverpool, by sea, is rather less uncomfortable and perilous than a journey to Chicago by land; but then you cannot take a Cunard steamer to Chicago; and there are many other places inland which you can reach only by rail.

In the first place, the waiting-room of the station is an outrage to those who have known better things. The simplicity of its appointments is as severe as those of a state apartment on the stage. Around its dingy walls goes an obdurate benching, cut into sections to contain each one person, whom wooden bars defend from encroachment and forbid to encroach. There are no chairs, and if you wish to warm your feet you must stand before the stove (a flaming monster in the middle of the room) on one leg, as the

stranger did, who sought to surprise the Athenians, and burn one boot at a time. In this chamber of desolation there is nothing to eat, nothing to drink, nothing to smoke. There is nothing with which to divert your mind but the long slender advertisements of rival railroad lines, printed on cardboard and framed in gilt, and hung upon the wall side by side, and flanked by the announcements of the accidental insurance companies.

In Italy, which we complacently look upon as a country far behind our own in the comforts and elegancies of civilized life, you would find as good accommodations for the peasants, in the third-class waiting-rooms of the railroad stations, as you find for ladies in our dépôts. As for the second-class and first class *salles d'attente*, we have nothing in the whole length and breadth of the republic to compare with them; for these rooms in Italy abound in cushioned seats, and are well warmed and lighted, and have a pretty *café* attached. In France it is all as comfortable, and in Germany, and in almost any country but our own. Even in Egypt and Spain the travellers by railway are better cared for than in America, where they are, for the time, treated like outcasts and abandoned persons.

The car in which we leave the station is heated by a stove near either door. It is hot to suffocation when you enter, but the motion of the train cools it directly, and presently the only warm men in the car are the men who sit before the stoves and put their legs on them. Or if the gentlemanly and obliging brakeman consents to stoke and keep the fire alight, the tops of the passengers' heads receive the greater part of the heat, and their feet freeze, while champion draughts meet and fight over their devoted legs. The floor of our car is bare and stained with deluges of tobacco-juice. It may happen, too, that it has been newly splashed with water, and that the ice formed upon it remains unthawed during the whole journey; and a gentleman who had the pleasure to travel with his family in such a car from New Haven to Hartford, assured us that they all remembered the journey in coughs and rheumatism for a month.

At the end of the journey you find the same absence of all persons connected with the service of the road which you have possibly observed before setting out, and while upon the way. At the station there is only the baggage-master, a man of austere and commanding address, who forbiddingly gives and takes checks, but who is far from being a porter; and the brake-men of the trains are as little to be approached with a heavy carpet-sack or an angular package as the conductor himself. In fact, there are no servants of the company to wait upon the passengers, whom all the gentlemanly officials, from the conductor down to the newsboy of the train, snub with the utmost severity.

Far be it from us to point out a remedy for these things. As we have said, we believe that the travelling public likes to have its stomach insulted and abused; and it is barely possible that it is somewhat responsible for the other personal discomforts it suffers. In no other country are such long journeys made by railroad, and in no other country is there such wretched provision for passengers. The restaurants are horrible; the waiting-rooms little better than cattle-pens; the cars uncomfortable in plan and cruel in construction, without any appointments for relaxation or repose. Take into account, with these things, the perils of broken rails, of collisions, of feeble bridges and misplaced switches, and it must be confessed that travel, in our country at least, has been well called "the fool's paradise."

ON PAINTING ROOM WALLS.

It is generally more expensive to paint room walls than to paper them. We purpose in the present article to enquire under what circumstances paint is rather to be used than paper, in spite of its higher cost.

It is not to be used on the walls of rooms which are required to look 'stylish' only, a plain, light tint of oil-color being thought more elegant than a pretty harmony of colors on paper. A few years ago this weighty reason determined the question in favor of paint, whenever the house owner felt himself rich enough and found his walls good enough. Defective plastering and a shallow purse were the only inducements sufficiently strong to lead any one to use paper-hangings instead of the cold grey, raw yellow, or other colorless color which the house-painters stood ready to apply. Now, if a house-owner be determined to have a perfectly plain, unvaried color on his room walls, he can still do better by using paper than paint. Very pretty flat tints of bright and of subdued colors are for sale in cheap kinds of wall paper. If the plastered wall be thoroughly well prepared, colored washes, indeed, look as well as the paper and are cheaper still, but these rub off easily and soil everything that touches them. Painting, whether in oil-color, as universally in times gone by a generation or so, or whether in water-color, as now becoming general, is more costly, and it is hard to give any reason for using it rather than paper. But whatever

else is adopted or rejected, let common oil-painting be entirely rejected and put out of the question. Its ugly gloss and unpleasant no-surface, all ridges and bristle marks, make it the worst wall decoration yet discovered.

Further, paint is not to be used on the walls of rooms too lowly in altitude or in importance to receive a somewhat elaborate style of decoration. What such decoration may be and ought to be, we shall see further on in our discussion; but, for the present, observe that any simple pattern, offering harmonious combination of colors in flat tints only, can be nearly as well produced on the surface of paper as on the best fresco ground. Any of those patterns which we briefly described in treating of wall papers, two weeks ago, look as well on the papers as they could be made to look in painting on plaster as it is practised by the artisans in the decorators' employ. And some of those patterns would be very costly and troublesome to execute in painting, particularly those in which much gold is used. There is a splendid pattern on paper covering a wall in Paris which may be easily described, and is as follows: Ground of pale purple, almost like the modern color mauve; bands, nearly half an inch wide and five inches apart, cross each other obliquely all over the ground, dividing it into lozenges or diamonds; these bands are deep red with dots all along them, of the ground color, which are twice as large at the crossing of the bands as elsewhere. In each lozenge of pale purple comes a smaller lozenge of dark purple, and in it a flower-de-luce of the ground color, the lighter purple; and outside the dark lozenge, between it and the red band, is a line of the dark purple. If the reader will draw this pattern, he or she will see that it is very fine. But it is only the background. The real pattern covers it in gold, printed on without any regard to the lozenges and *fleurs-de-lys*—circles fourteen inches in diameter, with quatre-foils and beautiful Gothic flower patterns within them. It is splendid as a decoration in flat pattern of the walls of a large room. Any one who has had any good wall painting done can give a shrewd guess as to whether it would be costly or not to have this design produced in modern dry fresco or in any other way of hand-work or stencil painting. But it would not be an unreasonably high-priced paper, if printed like the one from which we describe. Even at the present rates, such a paper could be put upon the walls of a room for about three dollars a roll; so that the walls of a large room—say a billiard-room of the proper size, eighteen by twenty-four feet and fifteen feet high—would take about sixty dollars' worth of such paper, and perhaps forty dollars' worth of gilt mouldings. It would be very simple dry fresco painting of the same walls that would cost only five times as much.

The actual beauty of fresco painting is, indeed, superior to that of wall-paper. The surface of carefully laid dry fresco is much more beautiful than the surface of the best printed paper. But the use of painting is to do what no machine-made or block-printed fabric can, except under unusual circumstances and at heavy cost—adapt itself perfectly to a particular place and fit it with a decoration which would not be suitable elsewhere. This is true of its simplest application, but the simplest form of mural painting leads insensibly to higher and higher developments of the art, until historical fresco painting is reached. The best thing in wall-paper that the manufacturer can make to-day from a skilful architect's design is as good, or very nearly as good, in all essential particulars as he will ever make. But the best dry fresco painting of to-day on some wealthy gentleman's library ceiling or billiard-room walls is a step towards infinite and as yet unimagined splendor of art by-and-by.

It is recognized by all those who have in any spirit of thoroughness and truth studied the arts of design, that modern painting is terribly astray in its almost complete divorce from mural painting and from decorative application. A generation of cabinet pictures is but an inglorious and perishable era; it is little more than vanity, and nothing comes of it in the end but vexation of spirit and quarrels of connoisseurs. But a generation of fresco painting is a part of the history of the world, and the cabinet pictures which such an age produces as play amid its serious work share in its glory and its worth. It is recognized as one of the necessary steps in the revival of art to get back to wall-painting again. In those countries where the revival of art has made any progress the leaders feel their highest achievements to be the few mural paintings they have successfully achieved. And of these—though some are in oil, as, for instance, the famous "Hemicycle de l'Ecole des Beaux Arts," by Paul Delaroche—the greater number in France, in Germany, and in England are in fresco or some form of painting akin to fresco. Now, the difficulty with all these works has been the exceeding strangeness of the material to the artists who were suddenly called on to paint in it gigantic pictures of historical or religious subjects. Modern German art is, in general, cold enough in color; but no one can suppose that the great frescoes in Munich and Dresden would have been so valueless in this respect if fresco painting had not been in a great measure a "lost art," revived by the very

men who had to paint, at royal command, the "Last Judgment" and the Nibelungen story and the acres of pseudo-classic decoration in loggie and cabinets. Modern English art is, in general, unorganized and undisciplined enough, and its works of little permanent value; but things would have been better if it had not been necessary to experiment and blunder and grope in the dark after a medium of painting sufficiently enduring to resist damp and to preserve the historico-legendary imaginings of Dyce, MacIise, Herbert, and Ward until their children could see them.

It will be long enough before there is any demand for mural fresco paintings in our cities; long enough for us all to learn how to use water-color on wet plaster and on dry, and to invent a host of processes as good as, or better than, stereochromy. It will be well if all the decorative painters, "bosses" and journeymen, get to understand all kinds of painting on plaster, and if all the "artists," popularly so called, learn the processes from them, that when our Leys or Watts comes to paint our history for us on the walls of some future capitol, which shall be to the present one what great art would be to the scene-painting now in honor there, he will find assistants ready to his hand, and a thoroughly understood and trustworthy process ready for use.

For ordinary purposes of in-door decoration dry fresco is sufficient—*fresco secco*, or painting on a surface of hardened plaster, which is wet piece by piece as the color is to be applied. True fresco, or painting on a freshly spread surface of plaster, remains as yet unrivalled for brilliancy and purity of tone. By either process, properly carried out, a colored surface is produced which is hardly to be injured by water, is almost indestructible except by dampness, which permeates the whole substance of the wall, and is far more beautiful than the surface of an oil-colored wall. We shall be safe, then, if we decorate our large and handsome drawing-room or billiard-room or hall with dry fresco. Of what character, next, should be the designs, and what sort of patterns are at our disposal, easily to be obtained from the workmen we have?

The designs most easily to be obtained, those, namely, which the workmen have at their fingers' ends, and will execute for you without instructions or explanations, are very commonly of one character, and that a very bad character indeed. The few houses in our great cities which a real estate broker would call "decorated" are all treated within to a sort of scene-painting which seeks to assert something quite false and, indeed, incredible about the make and surface of the walls and ceilings. The application of these histrionic effects seems to be universal. The ideal perfection of them is to be seen only in the drop-scenes of our larger theatres, which have sometimes quite a deceptive appearance of being what they are not, as stone, or marble, or panelled wood walls, pierced with windows and decorated with arcades. But more or less successful imitation of the same kind is common in our more expensive houses, and is not unknown in our churches.

The semblance of masonry of any kind is popular, however, only in the churches and great halls of meeting, and in the entries and vestibules and other half out-of-door parts of a house. It is not thought suitable for more private apartments. For these the favorite decoration is an affectation of a construction peculiar to wood-work, namely, panelling. It is not necessary to this that there should be direct imitation of wood; the color and grain of the wood may be imitated or may not be. Libraries are often painted completely in sham black walnut, and dining-rooms in pretended oak; but the drawing-room walls and ceilings have, oftener, the look of the wooden construction without the look of the wood. No material is imitated; the material is confessed as plaster, painted pale pink, or pale blue, or French grey, or of two or more such faint shades of color. But relief is imitated, and the huge panels are supposed to be sunken two or three inches below the level of the surrounding wall, the edge of the projection heavily moulded. That is the type; there are many ways of varying it and enriching it. Sometimes the mouldings seem to be carved with varied ornaments, and picked out with brighter colors and gilded, bouquets are put into the corners of the panels or festoons hung across them, or wreaths hung up in the middle of them. One panel within another is a common contrivance, which would, indeed, be expensive enough in reality, and would involve the necessity of a very thick wall, but is easily compassed in deceptive painting. The highest achievement of this system of ornament is reached when a female figure, somewhere between a dancing-girl and a nymph or goddess, occupies the middle of every panel, with gauzy crimson or blue robes that complete the chord of color.

The walnut-finished libraries and the oak-finished dining-rooms and offices are better and worse. Better, because consistent in wrong-doing, because sticking to one imitation; worse, because more nearly deceptive and more evidently intended for deception. There is considerable boldness in the way these latter humbugs give the lie to what we know is true about them; there is also skill to help to keep in countenance the brazen imitation

Possibly the long reign of this particular piece of self-contradiction is partly due to the skill with which it has been managed; possibly the sheepish quality in human nature which leads men to follow each other blindly, would not alone have sufficed to perpetuate it. It still keeps good company. Not, however, as good company as it once kept. All these imitations of costly materials have lost some of their importance. Their enemies have prevailed against them so far as to banish them from the best society. When Sir Walter Scott would found a baronial family and build a family seat, and Abbotsford resulted from his study of mediævalism and Melrose Abbey, he never suspected that his work was not thoroughly Gothic and thoroughly good, but much of the inner decoration of that building to which he gave such loving study was mere imitation of oak and of marble. The use of the deceptive painting was so naïve and unconscious that some part of the sin of such work is taken from it; but, also, all the beauty the interior might have had is taken from it, and discredit is cast upon all the antiquarian treasures with which the building is filled. Some friend sent to Scott beautiful oak wainscoting of the fourteenth century; there was not enough of it to line the whole room, it was eked out with plaster disguised by the painter's and grainer's brush and fingers. The ceilings of some of the principal rooms are still, to the careless eye, all of old oak, the heavy frame-work of massive carved beams exposed, and decorated with armorial shields, also of oak, all dark and venerable with time; it is only a careful look that detects the plaster surface and the brush marks. Flat stones were laid to pave a passage—laid as carefully and the edges adjusted as accurately as possible; then the surface was painted in imitation of marble, the painted joints quite independent of the hidden real ones. In this latter case "the stones cried out against him," as Scott himself said. The real slabs dislocated the false joints by insisting on their own.

If Sir Walter Scott were to build Abbotsford now, he would not err in that way. We are confident, too, that if the trustees of the British Museum were to build a new building to contain the treasures in their charge, they would not, in their main hall of entrance and on their principal stairway, contrast with real, enduring, adamant red granite from Egypt a pretty imitation of it. That is to say, decoration by delusions has lost something of its good reputation. But with us in America it holds its own. We are not at all sure that in a new Astor Library building the mistake of the present one would be avoided, and the marble coping of the entrance stairway no longer disgraced by a plaster-and-paint semblance of itself. If Boston were to build a new City Hall, the hollow wooden columns on the stairway to look pretty, with the slender iron ones inside them to do the work, would probably be perpetuated. The bodies of our carriages will for a long time yet be disguised by basket work of split cane, or by an imitation of it, put on with thick projecting color, where even real basket-work would be meaningless and a sham. And, in like manner, we can see no reason to suppose that fewer rich men will have their dining-rooms "panelled in oak" this year than last.

In considering how we ought to decorate by painting, let us stick to our billiard-room. Let us assume that there is a wooden wainscoting three feet high, in order that chairs and other movable furniture may be pushed back, if at all, against woodwork rather than against breakable plaster. Let us also suppose, to soften the angle between walls and ceiling, a cornice of some material, no matter whether wood or plaster, stamped metal or terra cotta, *papier mâché* or vulcanized rubber, but small, not more than eight inches high and a foot on the ceiling. Now there must be a border, a frieze, a broad band of the richest decoration and the brightest color, used along the top of the wall. There is no really successful design without it. We did not advise it in papering rooms, only because there are no pretty borders in paper to be had. From the days of the Panathænaic bas-reliefs, belted around the cella wall of the Parthenon, to the modern Polynesian savage, whose skilful carving of his paddle, which shames modern civilization, has for its first principle a border within which all the main design is contained, all true decorators have felt this need. The border may, perhaps, be an arcade—not in relief, not with shadow, but in pure flat color. Suppose, for instance, a row of semi-circles like arches, just bands of color an inch wide, alternately red and blue, and so interlaced that they continually make pointed arches half red and half blue. Suppose that each meeting of two red or two blue semi-circular arches is upon a floral similitude of a capital of the arch-blue and a little orange, and the *quasi* capital above a spiral hint at a shaft of the arch-red and a little green. Suppose that all this is on a pale buff ground; all perfectly shadowless and flat; the whole breadth of the band so designed about two and a half feet—that, or something like that, would make an excellent border.

The color, and something of the pattern of this, ought to be repeated, in a narrow band about six inches wide, just above the wainscot. There are

left nearly eight feet in height of wall between this latter narrow band and the border. This, the principal wall surface, is to be the simplest in pattern in our room decorated with flat decoration only. A design quite like a good design for paper will be good here; one unit or two or three units of design often repeated. Or, if the whole is divided into high and narrow panels (to use an inaccurate but customary word), every panel may have a different design within it, and will be better so if they somewhat agree in character and harmonize in color.

Space fails us, but the subject remains hardly touched upon. We hope to revert to it at another time.

THE "GERMAN" AS A SCHOOL OF MANNERS.

WHEN Ethiopian serenaders first entranced the public in England, and crowded houses nightly attested the attractions of Jim Crow and his million of successors; when Lady Clementina practised "Villikins and his Dinah," while Capt. George listened admiringly—*Punch* described Ethiopia as a district consisting of six or twelve chairs, situated on a platform behind foot-lights, and inhabited by creatures with lamp-black faces, who sang absurd songs and made very stupid jokes. Just so to-day, when one reads the heading of this article, every intelligent mind understands that this is no attack upon an innocent nation or individual peaceably given to smoke and beer, but it has reference to another collection "of six or twelve chairs," inhabited by the best society, robed in tulle, silk, and broadcloth.

We all are aware that towards the close of a ball, when chaperons are greedy for bed, there comes a lull which the uninitiated might suppose meant a general breaking up. The knowing ones know better. Chairs emerge from corners and quarters unsuspected and range themselves around the room. Sandwiches of young men and young women are seen to occupy these chairs; first "a youth," then "a maiden," until the magic circle is complete and the business of the evening begun.

The scene is harmonious, to all appearance; faces shine brightly with anticipation; and the tired mammas prop themselves against the wall and pray for patience. No matter what is the figure with which the leader chooses to open the ballet, it is sure to be pretty and graceful. The male dancers and the *coryphées* are ready, and, holding the *première danseuse* well in hand, he whirls off.

"Do n't take out Julia Jones," whispers the divinity in scarlet roses; "she wants to come into our set, and she sha' n't."

Her partner nods assent, and then unceremoniously catches up a half-dozen beauties and ranges them in accordance with the half-dozen gentlemen whom the fair persecutor of Julia Jones has already manoeuvred into place. The word is passed from lip to ear, and Julia Jones has a sombre time of it. She sits, as it were, apart from the crowd, and, until her "turn" comes, might as well have gone home an hour before. And she is not the only victim. There are more Julia Joneses than one in so large an assembly, and not a few feminine natures are made to feel the pin-pricks of girlish rivalries.

What says Aytoun?

"Men hate, because in act or strife
They cross each other's path.
Short is the space for jealousy,
And fierce the hour of wrath.
But woman's hate runs deeper far,
Though shallower at the spring.
A fairer face—a higher place—
More worship—more applause—
Will make a woman hate her friend
Without a deadlier cause."

And hating her, whether friend, foe, or stranger, what field like the German for exercising the delights of vengeance?

One method we have just noted; another is to arrange matters in the figure so as to force Louisa to dance with Charles, whom she refused yesterday, or with Laurence, who jilted her last summer. But then what right has Louisa to look so fresh and wear such a lovely dress, when she, Jane, is conscious of a *toilette manquée* or *souçon* of rouge? With the male inveterates, taking it for granted that there lurks "a deadlier cause," the results are pretty much the same. The Carlyles cut Tom Perkins at their last ball; here is the occasion for Tom to lame Bob Carlyle, as innocently as possible, just by bringing his heel unconsciously down upon Bob's patent-leather toes; and as for Mary Carlyle, how easy it is to pause long enough before her to make her half rise and hold out her hand, expectantly, while Tom looks surprised and gives his to the lady next door! All these small in-

cidents, and dozens like them, are enacted with smiling cheeks and smooth brows. And they are so many lessons taught to govern the days of one's life. You observe that disdain, envy, malice, and revenge have their pretty, petty triumphs, and the little tiger-cubs of both sexes taste the blood on which they mean to live and fatten.

We saw, the other evening, a German conducted on the best principles, offensive and defensive. A great, wide, brilliant circle. Ex-soldiers in late uniforms; generals, still in the service, gold-laced and gilt-buttoned; gentlemen, not military, in black and white; handsome women rustling in *ruches* and ribbons; stylish women stunning in strange devices of costume and coloring; plain women smiling in spite of fate, and doing their best to make one forgive their neglect of what somebody sets forth as a woman's duty, "Will I, will I—look pretty?" The *mise en scène* was really perfect—flags upon the wall, wreaths upon the ceiling, draped chandeliers, flowers, and a waxed floor. The German was inaugurated! Lightly sprang to their feet, at the call of the leader, a dozen dancers. Variegated scarfs floated from their uplifted arms, and then pink danced with pink, and blue with blue, until the seven couples were mated, made their giddy round, and the airy mantles fell on other shoulders. Had we been an ordinary mortal, this would have been all that our eyes and ears could discover; but, gifted with that power that one assumes with the pen, we saw and heard the by-play which kept even pace with the plot. We noticed that, having begun at the extreme end of the room, all the fun continued there. Again and again the same dancers took the floor and kept it. Patiently the scores of sitters sat on, fringing the dowagers against the wall like gay stripes upon a sober-hued Balmoral. Unweariedly the leader and the ladies, with the partners thereof, got up and waved the bright scarfs, and made momentary tableaux, and floated around. Green skirts and blue, white skirts and yellow, swam and sprawled, and somebody said to somebody else, "It must be dull for those over there."

"Who cares?" asked a sweet voice, and a gay laugh rang out defiantly.

At length, half tired of the sport, one gentleman ventured to choose a dancer who was waiting for her turn "afar off." The queens of the ballet consented, and the outsiders were gradually taken in because *mesdames* the *premières danseuses* wanted rest.

And now we watched a little woman, a stranger, whose bright glances had steadily followed the manoeuvres of the German. Her lithe figure, supple yet robust, and the graceful play of arms and waist, could show the most unpractised eye that she was a dancer. Evidently, also, she was there to dance. Her dress, in exquisite taste, had attracted much attention—too much, perhaps, for arrayed against her now was the sense of feminine jealousy.

"What business had she there at such a time?"—we had long seen a spirit of impatience "ride sparkling" in her imperious eyes—an hour had passed since she took her seat to dance the German, and she had never yet moved.

A stray gentleman, leading the figure, the eternal scarfs dangling from his hand, drew near—and passed on, singling out her neighbor. Another and another, right and left, they were finally permitted to use their stiffened limbs, but no relief came to this beleaguered sentinel.

Then we saw her rise and take her partner's arm—a stranger like herself—and make her way to her chaperon, who was dancing, and *had been dancing*, with one of the managers of the ball. "I am going home," she said curtly. "So soon! Are you tired of the German?" "Very—of looking on. I have sat for one hour and twenty minutes watching a performance in which I have been permitted to take no part. It does not amuse me to see the young ladies' ankles, and, having no daughter to look after, I have not the fortitude of the sleepy matrons who have daughters. It does not suit me to wait another hour for the privilege of thrusting a scarf into the unanspiring hand of some one of these gentlemen, who have with commendable unanimity declined including me in a dance which I presumed was open to all present."

"I suppose your being a stranger—"

"Pardon me, because I *am* a stranger would, in the country from which I come, be a claim upon civility, not a barrier to it. Were you to take your seat in a German there, you would be singled out repeatedly, from the fact that good manners inculcate, as they spring from, consideration of the feelings and rights of others."

She courtesied low, and we saw her sweep from the hall. "Consideration for the feelings and rights of others." A grave deduction from so light a subject. It is the moral of this German.

AMERICAN CATTLE.

SOME account having been given in a previous number of the importations of short-horns and the effect they have had in improving the common stock of the country, it remains to consider the importation of other breeds and to point out how far they have influenced the cattle of the United States.

We have alluded to the effort of the Hon. Henry Clay to introduce the Herefords into Kentucky in the year 1817. That, as we have seen, was in the early days of the short-horns, and before their unrivalled merits were fully understood. In 1824, Admiral Coffin, of the Royal Navy, sent a superior Hereford male and heifer to the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture. These animals were kept at Northampton, in the Connecticut Valley, and left a numerous progeny, which was highly esteemed in that neighborhood, where distinct traces of it may be seen to the present day.

But the largest importation of this breed was made by Messrs. Corning and Sotham, of Albany, N. Y., in the year 1840. This lot consisted of five males and seventeen females. Other additions were made to this herd in subsequent years, and a considerable part of it is still in the hands of Mr. Sotham, we believe. Hon. L. A. Dowley, formerly of Boston, now of New York, also imported several fine specimens of Herefords, which were kept at Brattleboro', Vt. A part of this herd went afterwards to the State Farm at Westboro', Mass., and from there into the hands of Merryman, the bridge-burner, of Baltimore Co., Md. The Herefords are not adapted to the wants of a section of comparatively small dairy farms. They are not adapted to New England, except, perhaps, to small localities devoted to grazing, which are limited in that part of the country. In point of symmetry and beauty of form they may be classed with the improved short-horns, though they are, perhaps, a little slower in coming to maturity. Still they take on fat with remarkable rapidity, and their beef is of higher quality than that of the short-horns, and brings a correspondingly higher price in the Smithfield market. It is a curious fact that the "cuts" for the rich in England come from the Herefords, the Devons, or the West Highlanders; while those for the people come from the short-horns or other classes.

The North Devons have been introduced into this country in greater numbers. There are many who are inclined to think they laid the foundation of the common stock of New England, and that the prevailing color of New England cattle, which is red, is an evidence of this. As a race the Devon dates much further back than its history can be traced; but the modern improvements, as in other breeds, are of comparatively recent origin. However much it may have been given to milk in its earlier history, it is now bred almost exclusively for beef. The oxen, when broken to labor, excel all others in quickness, docility, and beauty. They are rather numerous in the vicinity of Baltimore, Md., where Mr. Patterson has bred them for many years with special reference to the dairy, and has developed or preserved whatever milking qualities they originally possessed; but the result is a very different animal from the modern improved Devon, as it is commonly accepted in England and this country.

The Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture also imported a herd of North Devons some years ago. They were kept together a few years and then disposed of. The milking qualities of this breed not proving satisfactory, it has never become a general favorite in New England. The production of beef being an entirely secondary object, any imported breed must have other qualities to recommend it. They are good as working oxen, to be sure, on account of their quickness and ease of motion, but the New England farmer has an almost equally good stock for this purpose in his "natives." They give rich milk, but the Jerseys give richer. It must be admitted, however, that the Devons have been extensively crossed with the common stock of the country, and that they have exerted a powerful influence upon it.

The Ayrshires were imported into this country many years ago, and have proved a success in regions of small farms devoted to the dairy, particularly where the production of milk is an object of pursuit or where cheese-making prevails. The Ayrshires, crossed with the common stock of New England, have proved also to be remarkably good, and well adapted to the circumstances in which they are placed. One of the cows of this breed, originally imported by the late John P. Cushing, of Watertown, near Boston, gave in one year 3,864 quarts of milk, beer measure, or over ten quarts a day for the year, an average much larger than that of the common stock of the neighborhood at that time. The first Ayrshire cow imported by the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture yielded sixteen pounds of butter a week for several weeks in succession on grass-feed alone, while a cow imported by H. H. Peters, of Southboro', Massachusetts, in 1858, gave an average of 49 lbs. 3 oz. of milk per day for 114 days, beginning on the 1st of June, 1862. In three days in July her milk yielded 6 lbs. 3 oz. of butter.

These are rather rare and exceptional cases, it is true, but they serve to show the characteristics of the breed; and when it is considered that the animal is hardy, of small size, and yields a greater amount of milk in proportion to the food consumed than any other distinct breed, it will naturally be inferred that this cow is admirably adapted to the majority of farms in that part of the country where, it must be borne in mind, the demand for milk, for consumption in the numerous cities and factory villages which line the course of every stream, is very great and constantly increasing. Indeed, the Ayrshire may be taken as the type of the New England cow, as the short-horn may be regarded as that of the Kentucky or Western cow.

The Ayrshire has, therefore, been pretty extensively imported into the Eastern States, where it has been kept and bred in small herds, from which it has gone out into the hands of dairy farmers and been extensively crossed with the common stock, which it has almost invariably elevated and improved. But it is not in New England alone that the Ayrshire has been widely introduced and exerted a strongly marked influence. It has gone into New York, and some of the leading breeders of this class of stock are to be found there devoting their attention with great enthusiasm to the improvement of their herds. Many of the finest Ayrshires in the country have been bred around Baltimore, a section admirably adapted to them.

It remains to speak of the Jerseys, another favorite dairy breed which has had a wide influence within the last few years upon the stock of the northern and middle Atlantic States, and is destined, on account of its rising popularity, to become one of the leading breeds of these sections. The Jersey is the gentleman's cow. No animal surpasses it in richness of milk and the high color and delicious flavor of its butter. Where a man keeps but one or two cows for the purpose of supplying his family with milk and butter, where quality is more of an object than quantity, this is the cow of all others, and hence it is fast increasing in numbers around the large cities, at the fashionable watering-places, and the favorite summer country resorts of gentlemen from the city.

The Jerseys have been imported in great numbers within the last fifteen years not only into New England, but into New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. Not unfrequently a specimen or two will be found at the homesteads of the great short-horn breeders of Kentucky and the West, and if any surprise is manifested, as if they were out of place, the reply will be that they must have something to furnish a little milk and butter for the family.

To show how far this favorite breed has increased within a very recent period, it may be mentioned that in 1853 there were but about seventy-five pure-bred Jerseys in Massachusetts. They are now numbered by the thousand in that State, while since that date the price has increased more than a hundred per cent., and the supply at the present moment is far below the demand. The same is true, to nearly as great an extent, in the other Atlantic States where the breed is known.

Though quite out of place even on a dairy farm devoted to the production of milk for sale, in those localities where butter is extensively made, the Jersey is an important addition to the herd, either in the form of one or more pure-bred animals, or in a mixture of the strain of Jersey blood through the dairy herd. In either case the improvement is quite remarkable. One or two pure Jerseys in a herd of twenty will exert a marked influence on the quantity and quality, the color and flavor, of the butter.

The milk of the Jersey is different in mechanical or chemical composition from that of the Ayrshire. The butter particles rise through it with greater facility. It contains less caseine. In the attempt to make cheese from it, as compared with the milk of the Ayrshire, the farmer would find it to be a failure; not that a very rich cheese cannot be made from it, but that the quantity would not bear comparison.

This difference is apparent even to the naked eye, for if we take two specimens of milk, one from the pure Ayrshire, the other from the pure Jersey, and set them in favorable conditions for the cream to rise, for the requisite time, say twelve to eighteen hours, and then skim the two, we shall find the former will give us less rich cream than the latter; but the skimmed milk will still be comparatively thick and white, the color being due to the caseine which surrounds the butter particles and holds them in suspension, while the skimmed milk of the Jersey will be blue, thin, and watery. In other words, the one is still rich, and would make a very fair skimmed-milk cheese, the other of very poor quality.

To consume in its natural form, as milk, we regard the product of the Ayrshire the better of the two—more nutritive and more wholesome. This is evident from the fact that the Ayrshire milk contains a larger proportion of caseine than Jersey milk; for it is to the caseine, chiefly, that we are to look for nutritive elements, the butter or oily constituents adding flavor and delicacy, what we call richness, to the taste. The flesh and muscle forming

constituents are to be found in the caseine. This is a nitrogenous substance very nearly analogous in composition to fibrine, gluten, and albumen, and almost identical in chemical constitution with flesh. It is one of the most important elements of nutrition, in fact, and it is well known that cheese, which is the product of the caseine in milk, is one of the most nutritive of substances, more nutritive, even, than butcher's meat. The Jersey milk will make a rich cheese, but it will not make so much as that from Ayrshire milk.

There are some other European breeds that have been introduced into this country to a limited extent, but no others that have exerted anything like the widespread influence of those already mentioned upon our common stock. Among them the Dutch may be mentioned as one of the most prominent. These cattle are large in size, the prevailing color black, with more or less white, either in patches over the body or one great sheet of white extending over the back. They are usually great milkers and great consumers, but their milk is thin and of rather poor quality. They are also difficult to fatten off for the butcher after their milking days are over, more so than any of the breeds upon which we have dwelt. The proportion of food required to bring them into condition is altogether out of proportion to the results. As a breed it was at one time rather popular in England, but it has almost entirely lost its hold upon the estimation of dairymen and others there, and it will soon cease to be regarded as of any account in comparison with other and more profitable breeds in that country.

The number of pure-bred Dutch cattle, and of any other recognized breeds, is so small in comparison with those above alluded to, and the influence they have exerted upon our stock is so slight, that it is not necessary to dwell upon them further.

If, now, we take a casual glance at the improved stock of the country, we shall find that the beef and dairy breeds have been distributed in sections where we should naturally expect to find them—the former, most largely represented by the short-horns, having taken possession of the fertile plains of the great West, Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, and other grazing and corn-growing districts still further West and beyond the Mississippi, while the latter have been more generally, though, of course, not strictly, confined to the older Atlantic States. There are a few successful breeders of short-horns even in New England; but they look rather to a distant than a home market, with the exception of a few well-defined localities which may be regarded as adapted to this large breed.

New York also has the credit of possessing some of the finest short-horn herds in the country, few breeders anywhere having a wider or more enviable reputation than Col. Thorne, of Washington Hollow, and several others that might be named, whose efforts are an honor to the country. The breeding of this class of stock has, for the most part, been confined to enterprising persons who are able to keep pretty large herds, and who make it a specialty to a great extent, and they bring to it great skill and judgment, and conduct it with a degree of system which ensures success. The owners of Jerseys, on the other hand, have hitherto made the breeding of stock rather a secondary object of pursuit, subsidiary to the practical purposes of the butter dairy, or of supplying themselves with milk and butter. Hence these cattle are more seldom found in large herds, but are kept in small numbers by a large number of people. Within a range of twenty-five miles of Boston or New York, for instance, hundreds of gentlemen might be named who keep one, two, or three pure-bred Jerseys, while there are very few large herds where the object is to supply the demand of the public for these choice cows.

The same is true, to nearly as great an extent, of the Ayrshires. And yet no one can deny that it would be of great public advantage to have certain large breeding establishments, each devoted exclusively to some one pure-bred class, where a gentleman could go with entire confidence in the quality and the purity of the stock he wishes to obtain.

There are, in nearly every State, certain public establishments, like the State almshouses, the lunatic hospitals, and other public charitable institutions, having farms connected with them as a part of the system. In a large proportion of these institutions extensive herds of cows must be kept for the purpose of supplying the wants of the inmates. It is the duty of all such public institutions to keep only the breed of cows best adapted to supply them with milk, and adapted also to the farms in their respective neighborhoods. They would, by so doing, accomplish two great public objects instead of one. They would produce an equal amount of milk, and at the same time become great breeding establishments, where a high class of stock would be raised, and they would exercise a widespread and elevating influence upon the cattle of a large extent of country. In what way could they serve the public more directly and practically?

If we are permitted to look to Europe for examples of liberal public spirit,

we shall find that very many of the governing classes have adopted the system of establishing large breeding herds of pure stock for the purpose of developing and improving the neat cattle of their respective countries, under the impression that this branch of agriculture really lies at the foundation of all rural prosperity. The late Prince Albert, for instance, established a magnificent herd of two hundred short-horns at the Home Farm, near Windsor Castle; another of ninety pure-bred Herefords at the Flemish Farm, two miles away; another of a hundred pure-bred Devons on an adjoining estate called the Norfolk Farm; and all those herds were bred with extraordinary care.

The late King William of Wurtemberg began as early as 1824 to import and breed short-horns with the conviction that they would be the means of developing a taste for farming pursuits in his subjects and of improving the stock of his country. His example was soon imitated by the emperors of both Russia and Austria, and subsequently by the unfortunate Louis Philippe of France, and by Napoleon III., who has not only bought extensively and at enormous prices, but hired celebrated males from the famous herd of Booth, of Warlaby.

The King of Sardinia has done the same; while Spain has more recently made the attempt to build up and improve her Andalusian cattle by similar means. Other examples of public spirit in this direction might be named, all going to show that it is regarded as of great public importance that such efforts should be made to improve the stock of the farm. In this country we have nobody to undertake these great enterprises for us, and there is the more reason why we should undertake them ourselves. There is no place so appropriate as upon the farms connected with our public institutions. The expense would be too trifling to constitute any objection. In fact, after the herd were once well established, it might be made a source of actual profit to the institutions. It costs no more to raise a pure-bred animal than it does a scrub; while, after it is old enough to sell, it will bring a far larger sum.

At a recent public sale of two herds, one of Ayrshires and another of Jerseys, in the State of Connecticut, the calves of the former breed averaged over \$70 a piece, those of the latter \$85. The Ayrshire cows sold at an average price of \$193, and the Jersey cows at an average of \$293. When it is considered that one of these herds, the Ayrshires, was sold under very unfavorable circumstances, being for the most part in very low condition, it will be apparent that cows of either breed must be more profitable to raise than such as are commonly kept at our public institutions.

But the question of profit, though worthy of consideration, is entirely secondary to the main object which these establishments should have in view so far as their farming operations are concerned, which is the good of the public and the elevation and improvement of the stock of their respective localities. A branch of farming which involves so vast an amount of capital as that of the stock interest of this country cannot be regarded as of small importance, nor is its development unworthy to command the highest intelligence and the most consummate skill. The rewards of success are ample and encouraging, whether they may belong to public institutions or to private enterprise.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, January 26, 1866.

THE new "season" may now be fairly regarded as begun, the first of the state balls, given every winter at the Tuilleries, having just taken place. The enemies of crinoline will be sorry to learn that the prospect of the downfall of that obnoxious institution seems to be further off than ever, as the display of skirts at the ball in question was greater than ever, thus settling the "vexed question" of "to be" or "not to be" inflated for the next twelvemonth. The hooped petticoat is now made very small at the top, almost resting on the hips of the wearer, and falling straight in front, so as to do little more than keep the superimposed draperies from actually touching the knees, but forming a train behind far more extensive and comet-like than anything heretofore attempted in the way of "tails." The cage thus prepared and extended now receives a second "tail," fastened on behind about a foot from the bottom of the skirt, and forming a train that projects fully a couple of feet beyond the furthest extremity of the cage itself. This supplementary tail comes quite down to the ground, on which it drags as the wearer moves. The object of this latest achievement of petticoat engineering is to enable its wearer to display a "train" of silk, satin, velvet, or tulle, of from three to four feet. Above it is worn a flounced skirt, so long as to stream out a little way beyond the outermost wire of the crinoline—ladies of particularly insatiable vanity often wearing two, three, and four of these upper skirts, each longer and fuller than the one below it. Upon this ponderous framework is displayed the skirt of the dress, cut rather short in front and at the sides, but streaming

out behind like a meteor. This skirt is gored from top to bottom, some of the breadths being sloped on both sides, others on one side only. It is enormously full at the bottom, while diminished so much at the top as to form but a few plaits. The front breadth is often made without any plait, being sloped so as to lie flat across the body.

One favorite style of dress, the "robe princesse," is made entirely without plaits, each breadth being gored so as to fit the substructure of skirts (the latter being gored in like manner) without any fulness. Flounces are not much in favor at present, preference being given to flat trimmings, of some according or contrasting color, sewn upon the bottom of the skirt, and trimmed with gold, silver, glass, spangles, or feathers. In some cases the *corsage* is made quite plain, in others a drapery is worn much resembling the "Greek folds" of twenty years ago.

Glass heads are "a rage" at present; glass fringe in the drapery, long double or treble rows of large glass beads on the neck and arms, and glass beads in the hair. These beads, especially the colorless ones, of crystal, which shine and sparkle very brilliantly under lustres and chandeliers, though very cheap, are worn by the grandest dames, who, like Princess Metternich, will go to the Tuileries one night loaded with more of these cheap ornaments than would content an Indian squaw, and the next will dazzle beholders with a couple of millions of francs' worth of diamonds.

Gold and silver cord, spangles, zeechins, white jet, Cluny lace, covered with imitation pearls, which are sewed thickly upon it, so that the lace seems almost to be made of pearls; ribbons with patterns of gold or silver, fringes made of gold, silver, steel, or glass beads, or pearls, are the favorite trimmings. Garlands and bouquets of flowers are still used, and bands composed of black or colored feathers. Satins are decidedly in favor, velvet being now considered only as *demi-toilette*. Striped silks are more in favor than patterns; but for ball dresses, gauzes, organdies, and other transparent tissues, with bouquets or spots scattered over the transparent white ground, are in great request. For *demi-toilette*, zouaves and other styles of jacket are fashionable; and basquines are coming in again, with high bodies.

The hair is worn much higher at the back of the head, and covered with little close curls, in the style of the First Empire and of Louis XIV. These curls are not very costly; they are sewed on narrow bands of ribbon, and sold at so much per yard. For fifteen or twenty francs one has enough to impart to the head the desired resemblance to the fur of a Newfoundland dog. Bands of ribbon, or gold, are wound about the head, over these curls, and often produce a very pretty effect. The fashionable wreaths for the hair are now made long enough to hang down behind and pass round the neck under the chin, to the other side of the head. Chains of jet are also wound about the head and neck in similar fashion; but this new style being inconvenient and unbecoming, is hardly likely to become general. Masses of false curls, false braids, and false *chignons* are still worn; but hair-dressers affirm that the present fashion of loading the head with false hair must, ere long, be brought to an end by the impossibility of procuring the necessary supplies of hair. Already the difficulty of obtaining hair has brought certain enterprising "hair-hunters" (as they are technically termed) into trouble, as has been shown by an incident that occurred a few days ago, on the Boulevard Montmartre, where a young girl was found by a policeman, weeping so bitterly as to excite the inquisitive pity of that functionary. Questioned by the guardian of public order as to the cause of her tears, the girl replied that she was an orphan, that both her parents had recently died of cholera, leaving her in the utmost poverty, and that having made the acquaintance of a certain D. he had offered to place her with his wife as a housemaid; that she had accepted this offer, and had gone with D. to his house, but had seen nothing of his wife, who was, he said, gone into the country for a day or two; that D., on pretext that she might be hungry, had given her a piece of bread and a glass of wine, which latter had "got into her head" in a very strange way, and had caused her to become unconscious for an hour or two; that, on coming to herself, she found that her hair, which was jet black and very luxuriant, had been cut off while she had been asleep; and that D., on finding her awake, had ordered her to go away, telling her she had no business to be there, and had pushed her out into the street, telling her, in answer to her reproaches for the theft of her hair, that she was a drunken jade, and that he did not know what she was talking about. The policeman, having heard the girl's story, which she confirmed by taking off her cap and showing him that her hair was cut off close to the roots, gave information to his chiefs of the assault that D. had committed, and proceeded, with a couple of his brethren, to the house indicated by the girl. Through their investigations it was ascertained that D., who is a hair-dresser, is also a dealer in hair, and that he has obtained large quantities of this article by frequenting the public balls, making acquaintance with the women he meets there, and contriving, by the offer of

small sums of money, to induce them to sell him their locks. Latterly, the demand for hair increasing, and the supply falling off, this zealous caterer to the folly of the hour has adopted the violent mode of proceeding which has brought him into uncomfortable contact with the arm of the law. It seems that he has latterly been in the habit of prowling about the lowest quarters of the capital, where he watches for any girls whose appearance betokens poverty and friendlessness, and having inveigled them to his lodgings, contrives, either by the offer of a trifling sum of money, or, if that is rejected, by violence, to possess himself of their hair. A great number of curious letters were found at D.'s lodgings. One of these billets ran thus:

"Monsieur, you are a scoundrel. You have stolen my hair, and left me to starve. You know well enough that, up to this hour, you have not paid me one sou.
ERNESTINE."

A certain countess writes as follows:

"Monsieur, you have not acted honestly. The hair you have sold me is doubly false, for it is dyed, and stains my neck. I warn you that, if you do not change it, I shall summon you before the tribunal for deception in regard to the quality of the goods you have sold to me."

Another correspondent addressed the hair embellisher in these words:

"Infamous brigand, you nearly strangled me while cutting off my hair by force, and you leave me without a farthing. If, by six o'clock this evening, you have not sent me two Napoleons, I will denounce your villainy to the police.
JUDITH."

The evidence against the too enterprising "hair-hunter" being deemed conclusive, D. was sent to prison, where he now is to await his trial.

But, to return from this digression. Bonnets are worn much smaller than before. The "Empire" is the "rage" of the moment, and just serves to hide the ears and the top of the head. Birds, flowers, chains, buckles, cameo-buttons, and rows of beads are the principal elements of these pretty little ornaments (modern bonnets are really nothing else!), satin and beaver being the two most fashionable materials. An attempt is being made to curtail still further the already minute proportions of ladies' head-gear by suppressing that part of the bonnet which covers the ears; the bonnet then consisting merely of a tiny crown, which lies upon the top of the *chignon* (the latter now being worn on a level with the top of the head), and of a shallow rounded rim, the whole only sufficing to cover a few inches of the upper part of the head. This last absurd invention of Parisian eccentricity is styled "the Pamela bonnet;" but the *houris* of the boulevards not yet having adopted it, its success is by no means certain.

Cloaks are worn very short, generally fitting the shape. Fur trimmings, and imitations of astracan in curled worsted, black or grey, are worn on the edges, and round the armholes and pockets. Collars and sleeves are still worn very small, the former being usually a sort of Vandyke affair, with two long points in front.

The ambassadors from Morocco, who have been lionized at grand official dinners, at which they sat smiling, and evidently delighted, but refusing to taste anything but a little tea, have just left us, enchanted with all the wonders they have seen. One of the lionesses at the circus gave birth to three fine cubs, a couple of nights ago, during the performance, the male lions being with difficulty prevented from devouring the interesting infants, which, when rescued by the keepers, and held up to the view of the two-legged spectators, were by them saluted with enthusiastic *vivats*. The baby-lions seemed as wide awake and as collected as though being born were an everyday thing to them; and being confided to a large Newfoundland bitch which had been provided as wet-nurse in waiting to her feline majesty, the three little creatures began sucking with a zest and vigor that were audible throughout the building.

A great excitement was created, a few days ago, at the Garden of Plants by the discovery that one of the bears was on fire. Some mischievous rascal had thrown down into the pit where the bears are kept one of those dangerous toys called "Pharaoh's Serpents;" the serpent lodged in Bruin's fur, and the terrified animal was instantly in a blaze. The guardians went down into the pit, and succeeded, though not without difficulty, in putting an end to the conflagration by tumbling Bruin into the water-tank that serves the bears as a drinking-trough.
STELLA.

PARTIES IN ITALY.

CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES, FLORENCE, Jan. 22, 1866.

THE deputies' benches and the public galleries are crowded to hear the financial statement of the new Minister of Finance, Signor Scialoja, and while the "verification of powers" is going on we shall have time for a glance at the physiognomy of the new House of Parliament, which met for the first time on 19th November, 1865, overthrew the Ministry on a question of detail on 19th December, then voted a fortnight's Christmas holidays,

which the Government prolonged by another week, and is now re-assembled to verify the new elections and proceed to the business of the session. When the House was prorogued about eighty colleges remained vacant; some of these are filled, others remain to be balloted for, but the result alters scarcely at all the relative position of parties in the House. At the time of the presidential (or speaker's) election the "left" boasted that they could cast 130 compact votes; the right about the same number; the remainder belonging to the centre, left centre, third party or Ratazzians, who enjoy the privilege of turning the scales in favor of whichever side they prefer. As, then, the late elections have given six members to the right and half-a-dozen to the left, it becomes a question of life or death to conservatives and *progressisti* to win over this party to their side. The Ratazzians or third party were the liberals in the Piedmontese chamber when Cavour, then Minister of the Navy, shocked his premier, the conservative but patriotic D'Azeglio, by holding out to them the hand of fellowship. They accepted it, and worked with the great statesman till his death, when the compact and well-ordered ranks of the moderate party split into fractions, and called themselves "Ratazzians," "Ricasolians," "Lamarmorians," etc., each in turn taking their lease of power, doing their utmost to upset each other, only combining when the dread spectre of the red shirt rose before their eyes. In that first Italian parliament the "left" can scarcely be said to have had a collective existence. At the elections of 1861 the radicals were far more anxious for a summons from Caprera than for an arm-chair in *Palazzo Madama*. Some twenty or thirty radicals did take the oath to the "King, his heirs, and the constitution;" but they were undisciplined and disorganized, did some good service as *bersaglieri*, and no more.

But Sarnico and Aspromonte seem to have taught the members of the liberal party that the *plebescite*, while it imposed on the King the duty of freeing Rome and Venice, gave him also the right to choose his own time; that hence, as war can only be proclaimed by his government, the speediest way of making war is to seize the reins of that government. If we except two or three ultra republicans who deem monarchical unity fatal to Italy, all the prominent men of the party of action echoed the cry "To the urn—to the urn!" Mazzini urged his friends to choose members who would insist on immediate war for Venice; Garibaldi *item*; the nation answered their appeal, and our left benches are now thronged with men who, in exile, prison, or on the field, have worked for their country's liberation. Twenty-three Garibaldian officers are there; I see a handful at the extreme left—Colonels Corte, Guastalla, Pianciani, and Chiassi, and Majors Guerzani and Cairoli—who will give their moderate leaders a mint of trouble ere they allow them to celebrate the proposed marriage with the left centre. This, however, is the formal programme of Crispi and Mordini; excluding Ratazzi as the minister during Aspromonte, they invite the Piedmontese faction and the remnants of the third party to join them, and together ascend to power. No answer has as yet been vouchsafed; but if it is given in the affirmative, the hours of the present Ministry are counted. As it is, Lamarmora is looked on with no favorable eyes; it was his menace, "to dissolve the House if necessary," that led to the late crisis; and his remaining in office is unhesitatingly attributed to the negotiations with Austria for something more than commercial concessions, and to fresh overtures from the Pope, in consequence of which the bills for the suppression of seminaries, proposed by Natoli, and the bill for the suppression of monastic orders and the administration of ecclesiastical property, brought in by Cortese, are, it is said, to be withdrawn. In any case the present Ministry does not possess the elements of success; and if the proposed coalition of left and left centre is carried into effect, we shall have a radical Ministry before the end of the session. I, for one, shall deeply regret such a premature event; the members of the left are chiefly new to parliamentary life, and of administrative routine they are totally ignorant. It may be said that Mordini and Crispi had some experience during Garibaldi's dictatorship, but that would avail them little as ministers of a united Italy, with an empty treasury, for the solution of the question of Venice, or the how to get Rome and yet keep faith with the signers of the convention of September 15. Like all *ultra* parties, the radicals are in too great a hurry; they have no decisive financial programme; no war programme; no well organized system of internal reform, so necessary in this transition state, where administrative and legislative unification demands that the best laws of each state shall be extended to the whole.

The ministers have just taken their seats. Lamarmora reads over the names of the members of the cabinet, and Scialoja rises to make his financial statement, of which, at the close, I must give you such a report as can be drawn up in this ill-conditioned reporters' gallery, where only one word in six reaches the ear. Scialoja commenced his speech by assuring the House that the rumors of a new loan were false, that such a measure would

be most unadvisable under present circumstances and unnecessary, since it is his opinion that the close of 1866 may be reached without recourse to any extraordinary expedients. He stated that the deficit of 1866 would amount to 266,000,000*f*; that, avoiding all empirical remedies, the Ministry proposes two schemes for balancing revenue and expenditure, *i. e.*, the augmentation of the former, the reduction of the latter. As to the 443,491,000*f*. of public debt, that cannot for the present be touched, as nations can no more fail than individuals in their engagements; neither can the 7,932,000*f*. for pensions, half-pay, etc., nor the 21,714,000*f*. for prisons, galleys, etc., be reduced. The necessary expenses he divided thus: 230,000,000*f*. for the army and navy, 166,000,000*f*. for all the other branches of the administration. On comparing the balance of 1864 with that of 1866, we find a reduction of expenditure amounting to 150,000,000*f*., but the nation has not felt the benefit thereof. Between the war and navy, and other offices, another 57,000,000*f*. may be saved by means of organic reforms; 2,300,000*f*. are to be saved by changes in the treasury service; 2,500,000*f*. in the foreign office; 2,084,000*f*. in the home office; 2,168,000*f*. by the abolition of the sub-prefectures; 300,000*f*. by re-organization of the civil engineering service; 1,500,000*f*. in the post-office and telegraphic departments; 30,000,000*f*. in the war and navy departments. These economies, amounting in all to 57,000,000*f*., would reduce the deficit to 211,000,000*f*., which must be provided for by other means than by a loan. As for existing taxes, it would be difficult to augment them, though by a better and juster distribution they may be made more profitable. Our three chief taxes are property, or, strictly speaking, land tax, income tax, and stamp tax. The land tax would be rendered more productive by being organized on the latest *catasto* (or census of landed property), the income tax must be reduced from 15 to 10 per cent., the window tax, proposed by Sella, withdrawn, but all the others are approved and are expected to produce 20,000,000*f*. A new tax on wine is to produce 40,000,000*f*.; minor taxes, 35,000,000*f*.; Sella's famous tax on the grinding of corn *macinato* is not to be rejected without a hearing, and thus the deficit is to be reduced to 80,000,000*f*. if the measures proposed be adopted without delay. Such is a faithful, though brief, report of Scialoja's speech, which terminated with an appeal to all parties to unite against the greatest present enemy of Italy—the deficit.

The death of the poor little deformed Prince Oddone was announced, in consequence of which the House is to be closed to-morrow. J. W.

Correspondence.

WHO WAS DON QUIXOTE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Readers of Cervantes' immortal novel who have any acquaintance with the peculiarities of Romanist doctrine cannot have failed to observe therein a great deal of sly allusion which at least smells strongly of heresy, and are quite willing to believe the tradition that he once observed that his book should have been twice as good were it not for the Inquisition. Whether he had not a more peculiar and personal aim is a question to consider.

It is to be noted that the mental condition of his hero is undecided. Cervantes affirms him to be mad; but whether a physician would not pronounce him as sane as St. Theresa or Francis of Assisi is not clear. His creator was fond of telling anecdotes about madmen, and evidently knew the external signs of lunacy well, but has given him no unmistakable feature thereof. All his delusions might be explained by supposing him subject to hallucination, like Swedenborg and Colonel Gardiner, men universally considered sane. Coleridge pronounces him not mad, but one in whom the imaginative faculty had acquired a tyrannous mastery over the perceptive powers. In short, he is a visionary enthusiast to the utmost extreme of sanity, and perhaps beyond it.

We are apt to overlook the influence exercised over great minds by the political and theological events of their time, even in literary matters; perhaps it may come of our slight understanding thereof. But Cervantes was a Spaniard to the core, intensely interested in what was of important concern to his nation. Indeed, there is in all the novel an undertone of sorrowful disappointment—a sense of failure not merely in his own life but in his nation's. When he was young, Spain was in her very pride of place. He himself had been in the great sea-fight that finally thrust back the Turk; and after that it seemed as if not only Spain and Portugal, but France, England, Holland, and Italy, would all be ruled from Madrid. All this had passed away. The heretic English and Dutch swept the seas; Maurice and

Henry of Navarre had proved themselves too much for the Spaniard. And France—not absolutely heretic, but as much hated as if she were—was confessedly coming out first in the race. All this gives its tone to, and is echoed in, the work of Cervantes' age—of a time when thoughtful men saw their glory departing, and, like his hero, looked back to a magnificent and heroic past. But there were other matters of temporary and local importance, and what these were I will endeavor to show.

The Spanish population was then divided into three classes: first, the *hidalgos*, or "petite noblesse," who claimed to descend from those who had reconquered the land from the Moor; second, the *pecheros*, descended from those Romanic and Gothic Christians who had submitted to Tarik and Musa, and lived under them as tolerated subjects; third, the new Christians, sprung from converted Jews or Moors, and held in much social disesteem—looked on, in fact, like persons known to be of mulatto descent with us. Now, whether from chance or choice, the Jesuits (organized four years before Cervantes' birth, and for a long time predominantly Spaniards) drew their recruits mainly from the new Christians, playing the same game that the Northern churches propose to play in the South. So much was this the case that, in 1573 (Cervantes being then in his twenty-sixth year), they attempted to make Polanco (of Jewish descent—indeed, it would seem, himself a convert) the general of the order. The disgust of a young *hidalgo* at such proceedings may be guessed. But in four years a Neapolitan (Aquaviva) was made general, and the management of affairs concentrated in Italy, thus overthrowing the influence of the Spaniards, old Christians or new. Then they quarrelled with the Dominicans on the score of their Augustinian (*Calvinist*) theology, and themselves took that rationalistic and Pelagian line which brought down on them the lash of Pascal in later times. Then the Spanish Inquisition pitched into them. And then the order went over to Henry of Navarre, and formally allied themselves with France and Venice. Just about this time came out the first part of the "Quixote." As to the second, it was published ten years after, when Cervantes lived by the patronage mainly of the Archbishop of Toledo, who hated the Jesuits by necessity of position. Still—although not yet canonized—Loyola was held in great reverence in Spain, and any palpable sneer at him would have brought the jester into unpleasant nearness to the rack and stake. But that did not hinder much sarcastic allusion, of a kind only noticeable by keen observers, and capable of being disclaimed with security.

Ignacio Loyola was, indeed, not an old bachelor but a young soldier, a duellist and an amorous; not merely an intense lover of romances, but had actually written one himself—though in praise of the Apostle Peter. He had chosen for himself a *dulcinea*—who probably knew as little of it as Aldonza Lorenzo—but she was in rank as he says "more than a duchess." When recovering from his wounds, and perceiving that he could no longer be a soldier, he dreamed of imitating the penances and feats of Francis of Assisi and St. Dominic; but, it would seem, very much as a matter of ambitious adventure. And when he had forsaken house and friends, and gone off in pilgrimage to Montserrat, he thought fit to hang up his armor and hold a vigil; not according to the usage of the Church, nor to that of knight-hood, but in precise imitation of an adventure in "Amadis de Gaul." So, afterward, he had hallucinations equal to any of the knights—he conceived himself to have seen the Virgin, Christ, and the Trinity, with his own corporeal eyes. Afterward he became more reasonable and more pious; but these things remained on record, and we may guess the way in which they were regarded in later times by a *hidalgo* of education, and of humorous and sceptical tendencies, who hated the Jesuits for other good reasons.

It may be said that there is nothing convincing in this. Doubtless not; but had Cervantes written anything convincing he would have figured in the next *auto-da-fé*. Whether they do not amount to a probability is another question, and one which must be left to the judgment of readers.

S. T.

THE WEST POINT MILITARY SCHOOL:

ITS ABUSES AND THEIR CORRECTIVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

No similar institution, perhaps, in any country has undergone such scrutiny as the national military school at West Point. The butt of personal or partizan enmity on the one hand, and of ignorance or prejudice on the other, it has been a theme for vituperation both within and outside of Congress. State legislatures have turned aside from their own sphere of action to recommend that their representation in Congress should oppose appropriations for it. Several special commissions have been raised in Congress to investigate and report upon its condition. Even militia conventions in several States have presented the edifying spectacle of passing resolutions

solemnly calling upon Congress to abolish this the only national establishment for cultivating and diffusing military science.

That any institution should have existed for over half a century under such persistent assaults, and have undergone such scrutiny with so little that was in any way damaging to its reputation or interests, is not the least remarkable part of this record. But what is not less striking, is the contrast between this condition of things with us and what is seen in every other civilized country in the world, where military schools are carefully fostered by their governments as an essential element of their military system. In France, a country socially more democratic than our own, the Polytechnic, the mother of her scientific military schools, was founded during the fiercest period of her revolutionary struggle, and there is not, probably, a peasant even there who does not regard it with admiration and speak of it with pride. Why in a country like this, where intelligence is so universally diffused, where there is no disposition to withhold a liberal support from any object of national utility, where the annual reports of boards, selected from all sections of the country and from all classes of the community, to investigate the condition of this school, are made public through the daily press, this opposition should still so long have been kept up, can be accounted for hardly upon grounds that are creditable to the common sense and sagacity that we show in most other practical matters.

With all these sources of intelligence, however, and all these discussions respecting what are popularly known as the "Military Academy" and as the "Cadet," strange as it may seem, there are but few persons who know what the one or the other is, as established by law.

The Military Academy is a body of men constituted for the purposes of the cultivation and diffusion of the military art and the sciences pertaining to it, and is composed, by law, of the Corps of Engineers and of certain professors named in the law.

The term and office of cadet are borrowed from European services, and appear upon our statutes as early as 1794, when youths bearing this grade, which is that of a military warrant officer, were assigned to a corps of artillery and engineers provided for by law at that time.

The Military Academy was created by law in 1802, and West Point was assigned as its permanent location. Subsequent to its establishment, cadets from other arms of the service were also sent to it to receive military instruction, and by a law passed April 29, 1812, it is provided that the cadets of all arms "may be attached, at the discretion of the President of the United States, as students to the Military Academy." That an understanding of the legal import of these two terms is not unimportant, will be apparent from the fact that, either through ignorance or misapprehension of them, grave arguments have been made, both in and out of Congress, against the constitutional power to create a military college; when no one, it is presumed, would question the power to provide any corps with the suitable means of instruction for the duties assigned to it, or object that officers of any grade, from any other corps, might be temporarily attached to it, for the purpose of better qualifying them for the discharge of their appropriate duties. Such, in fact, is the working of what is popularly known as the Military Academy.

Now, whether this could be better accomplished in some other way, and the expense of the military school at West Point be avoided, is a question that has been long agitated in this country. Various measures have been proposed, but, practically, they may be reduced to two.

One is to appoint to commissions of the lowest grade young men who have served a certain period in the ranks of the army.

The other, to make these appointments directly from civil life.

In either case the candidate for appointment to pass an examination of a specific character.

A very cursory glance will suffice to show the inferiority of either of these modes of appointment to the one which is secured through the Military Academy. It may be said, granting you could find young men to enlist with the proper ability and qualifications to prepare for an examination for a commission, what are the opportunities that a barrack or camp, crowded with common soldiers, would afford them for pursuing any severe mental occupation? They would learn, it is true, the military duties, and acquire the discipline of their station, but, in the nature of things, very little else. The difference between their pay and rations and that which the cadet now receives would be very trifling.

In the case of the appointment being made directly from civil life, it cannot be doubted that generally, at least, young men of higher attainments, and of better abilities, would offer as candidates for commissions.

They would thus enter upon the duties of an office which the cadet reaches only after four years of severe military training, not in one branch alone but in every division of the military art: engineering, artillery, cav-

alry, and infantry, in which he has been taught all that is essential as a foundation for the theory of these branches, and has gone through all the practical exercises, from the duty of the common soldier up to that of the commander of a battalion, squadron, and battery. Where can the youth, appointed a lieutenant from civil life, make these acquirements before entering the service? What are the probabilities that in four-years, the cadet period, he will have made them in either garrison or camp life? As to the pecuniary item, during these four years, the difference is greatly in favor of the cadet.

But the comparison of the two modes does not stop at this initiatory stage. Confined to it, in view of the light responsibilities resting on a lieutenant, any difference could be but of trifling importance. The great contrast will appear in the highest grades, where important commands, embracing several arms, are to be exercised. In the one case you have a person to command who has been trained in the principles and practice of all of them. In the other, one who, in all probability, knows but little or nothing of any but of the arm into which he was first appointed.

Such, it is believed, are the essential questions in any comparison that can be made between the various modes, proposed and tried, for officering an army. That the results from a properly organized military school, supplied with properly qualified subjects to make use of its advantages, would be the best, not only reason would seem to concede, but, it is thought, the records of even our limited military experience would conclusively show. But this being conceded, we are brought only to the beginning of the difficulties connected with a national military school in this country. These have been so lucidly and strongly stated by a recent writer in THE NATION that to enlarge upon them can add but little strength to his already impregnable positions. Still, if any remedies can be found for the abuses and defects connected with the present school, and which he has so ably pointed out, they can only be hoped for by keeping them so constantly under the public eye as to attract a general acquiescence in the necessity for some salutary changes.

The great defect, the one for which, if there be no remedy, there can be none for most, if for any, of the minor deficiencies in the present institution, is in the mode of appointing cadets from Congressional districts, and virtually by the members from those districts. It is needless to point out the abuses to which this system is open. To any one acquainted with our institutions they are patent. How far it has failed in its results, the proportion of those who have graduated at the institution to those who have been admitted to it is the most unerring criterion for determining. *The proportion, going back for the period of the last twenty-five years, is about one to two; or, in other words, only about one-half of those admitted to the institution have succeeded in accomplishing the courses of instruction taught at it.* That this result is due entirely to the system of appointment, there can be no question; for there is nothing in the courses of instruction or in their amount which any youth of average abilities and average industry ought not to be able to master, even with the very meagre acquirements now demanded for admission into the school.

If this untoward influence ended with the appointment to the institution, it would be bad enough; but it not only insists upon sending incompetent persons to the school, but, in too many cases, in keeping them there after their incompetency has been fully shown by an impartial examination. This abuse had become so glaring, and its evil effects so palpable, that a law for its correction was passed a few sessions since, prohibiting any cadet who had been pronounced deficient either in studies or in habits of good conduct by the faculty of the institution, and who had been recommended, because of incompetency, to be discharged, from being continued at or returned to the institution. This attempt at limiting, by law, an unworthy exercise of patronage was but short-lived. It was repealed at the last session of Congress by an amendment in the House. That the arguments for the repeal were conclusive, in the opinion of the body to whom they were addressed, must be presumed, from the fact that when the amendment was thrown out by the Senate, and a committee of conference asked for, the members of the House upon it, so report goes, offered those of the Senate either to give up their objections or to see the appropriation bill for the institution fail to pass. After this showing, need the writer referred to, in his article in THE NATION, December 28, 1865, wonder at what he states "is a strange fact, that, while many professional soldiers admit all the evils of the present system, they declare themselves unable to see any remedy?"

This is rather a desponding view, it must be confessed, for professional soldiers to take who know what are the sources of these evils. There are but two of any prominence, and those easily remedied by legislation. The first is the present mode of appointing cadets. The second is the restoration of cadets who, for incompetency, have been recommended for discharge.

The latter is, perhaps, the greater evil of the two. It has been repeatedly and strongly animadverted on in reports of boards of visitors. Attention has been frequently asked to it by the faculty, who, in a special report made by them in 1862, make the following statements:

"Cadets openly asserted their confidence that they should not be discharged under any circumstances, however unfavorable to them; and such was the increase in the number of deficiencies in conduct (notwithstanding the decrease in the number attributable to each delinquency) as to induce a special report on this subject, by the Academic Board, to the Hon. Secretary of War, in January, 1861.

"An examination of the records of the Academy, for many years, shows that, of those who have failed in the two lower classes (the first and second year's course), and been allowed the privilege of another trial, about one-third only have succeeded in graduating; and that, of these, few have reached a high standing in their respective classes. The others remained at the Academy from one to three years—not only subjecting the Government, for this period, to useless expense on their account, but depriving it, for the same length of time, of the services of their successors.

"The small number thus succeeding, after a second trial, is the more remarkable when it is considered that most of those to whom this privilege was granted were selected and recommended by the Academic Board as the most promising and worthy of those found deficient.

"Under these circumstances, the law of the extra session of Congress, July, 1861, devolving the responsibility of all discharges from the Academy upon the Academic Board, was passed."

It is this law which was repealed in the last session of Congress, as above stated.

This whole subject, upon which so much time has been expended, lies in a very small compass. A youth sent to West Point either cannot or will not conform to the requirements of its curriculum and code of discipline. If, from his mental or moral constitution, he cannot do so, then it will be best for the public interest and his own that he should seek some other career. If he will not do so, the obligation is the greater that he should be sent from the institution at the earliest moment practicable. Now who is to decide this question of competency? The law has placed this in the hands of the faculty, as persons who, from their hourly opportunities for ascertaining the mental and moral habits of those under their instruction, are presumed to know most about them. What an unnecessary farce it is to call upon this body to make the examinations requisite for this purpose, and, upon the results of this investigation, to recommend the incompetent for discharge, and then say to them, Gentlemen, you are not infallible, and thus let their recommendation go for naught.

That the evil, so forcibly pointed out in the report, is one of no small magnitude in keeping at the institution incompetent subjects, and thus depriving of an opportunity of availing themselves of its advantages the thousands of youths who are yearly applicants for them, will be apparent from the fact that as many as from thirty-five to forty of such subjects have, at times, been thus retained contrary to the unfavorable opinion of the faculty on their competency.

This national military school is but the creation and creature of the people. If they are satisfied with the mode in which appointments are made to it, and with which, as a trust committed to the hands of their representatives, it is administered, nothing more remains to be said on the subject. But the question may not unfairly be asked, whether an individual would be satisfied to see his private trusts administered in the same spirit?

A WEST POINTER.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

DR. ABEL STEVENS's interesting little book on the history and present condition of the American Methodist body, prepared in view of the approaching centennial anniversary of the first planting of the denomination in the United States, furnishes some curious statistics respecting the literary operations of the sect whose Book Concern is now the largest religious publishing house in the world. Its earliest operations commenced in 1789, with a borrowed capital of about six hundred dollars, and the first book issued was the "Christian Pattern," a translation by Wesley of a Kempis's celebrated "Imitation." The Northern Methodist Book Concern of the present day comprises two branches, an Eastern and a Western one, with seven depositories and an aggregate capital of nearly nine hundred thousand dollars. Four book agents appointed by the General Conference manage its business. It has twelve editors of its periodicals, nearly four hundred clerks and reporters, and between twenty and thirty cylinder and power presses constantly in operation. It publishes above five hundred "general catalogue" bound books, besides

many in the German and other languages, and about fifteen hundred Sunday-school volumes. Its tract publications number about nine hundred, in various tongues. Its periodicals include one quarterly review, four monthlies, one semi-monthly, and eight weeklies, with an aggregate circulation of over one million of copies per month. Its quarterly and some of its weeklies have a larger circulation than any other periodicals of the same class in the nation, probably in the world. Its sales in the Valley of the Mississippi alone for the four years ending with January, 1864, were one million and a quarter of dollars. "There has been an instance of defalcation on the part of its agents. It has never failed in any of the financial revulsions of the country, and it is now able, by its large capital, to meet any new literary necessity of the denomination." How much do "outsiders" know of the operations of this vast organization? There are, no doubt, thousands familiar with books all their lives who have never met with a single one of its publications. It is the difficulty of grasping and allowing their due effect for the instrumentality of such enterprises that makes any generalizations on popular opinion and its sources so often dubious and visionary.

—A case probably unparalleled in this country has been brought for adjudication before the Supreme Court of New York during the last week. It is well calculated to make autograph collectors tremble for the fate of their stores, as it turned upon the right of property in a letter from General Washington to the Mayor and Common Council of this city, in 1785, returning thanks for the freedom of the city, presented to him in a gold box. It formed part of the collection of rare books, engravings, manuscripts, autographs, etc., famous for the last half century as belonging to Mr. John Allan, one of the oldest and best known residents of New York, who died in 1863, in his eighty-sixth year, when his library, etc., was sold at auction by Bangs, Merwin & Co., and amongst other articles the letter in question. It is characteristic of the brief tenure of notoriety in this ever-changing metropolis that Mr. Allan figures in the law reporter's notes given in the *New York Times* as "one John Allen, a gatherer of old and rare books, etc." For more precise information he may be remitted to the elegantly printed "Memorial of John Allan," written by Mr. Evert A. Duyckinck, and sumptuously issued by the Bradford Club. It is well remembered that Mr. Allan's books, from the interest attaching to the collection itself and the numerous friends of the man, brought unprecedentedly high prices. The most costly of all was this letter of George Washington. By a concurrence of two unlimited orders in the hands of agents who were fearful of not meeting the expectations of their principals, it was run up to the absurd sum of \$2,050. The buyer, however, found he had gone beyond the means or intentions of his employer, and was unable to complete his purchase, refusing to give up the name of the person for whom he had acted, and the letter remained in the auctioneers' hands until now, when, the facts having drawn attention to the circumstance, a suit was commenced by the city authorities to recover possession of the letter, or its value, as rightfully the property of the city. It seems rather a small matter to task the already overtaxed energies of city counsel and attorneys, particularly as there was plenty of evidence that Mr. Allan had been for more than thirty years in peaceable possession of the document, and the idea of his obtaining it surreptitiously could not for a moment be entertained. The matter was brought to trial on February 14, when the plaintiffs obtained a verdict, not putting them in possession of the letter, it would seem, but of the sum for which it was sold, \$2,050. It would appear that the effect of this decision is to confer a right in the receiver of a letter to a perpetual property in it in spite of lapse of time or change of proprietorship. Such a decision would play sad havoc with collections of autographs, and can scarcely be received without some limitation.

—The new English journal of field sports and natural history presents an inviting list of contents. It is called "Land and Water: A Weekly Journal of Field Sports, Sea and River Fisheries, the Stable and the Kennel, the Gun and the Rifle, the Farm-Yard, Athletic Exercises, the Traveller and Explorer, Archaeology, and Practical Natural History." The latter department and the fisheries will be conducted by Frank Buckland, Esq., the general editor being Mr. Baker, author of "The Rifle and the Hound in Ceylon," etc.

—Some of the people who will never leave a work of genius alone, who want to see further into a millstone than their neighbors, and are delighted with researches into the "real authors" of Shakespeare's plays, the unknown assistants of Scott in the Waverley novels, and similar enquiries, have been at work on "Don Quixote." It is asserted that Mr. Rawdon Brown, a gentleman well known for the valuable historical works embodying the results of his examination of the Venetian archives, has obtained evidence among them that Cervantes intended his immortal work as a political satire directed

against the Duke of Lerma. Mr. Brown, having attained to the inner meaning of the romance by his discoveries, is said to be engaged on a key to the characters, by which many obscure portions of the work are brought into a new light. Another speculation on this subject will be found on another page of THE NATION.

—As we notice in a New England periodical an advertisement addressed to "parties who desire the services of a genealogist," there must be many who will be interested in the new edition of a book that had become very scarce—Burke's "Extinct, Dormant, and Suspended Peerage," just brought out in London. It forms a valuable companion and help to English history, giving the story of each title, and tracing the lines of descent where the claim still exists. It is a proof of the practical tendency of the American mind that while every old settled neighborhood has some tradition of a vast property in England rightfully belonging to some widely spread family, no one thinks of claiming dignities, which may actually be recovered, while there is hardly a case known where property has been restored, though large sums have been spent in the pursuit. In the last century there were two remarkable instances where the possessors of ancient titles were discovered in America and their claims made good; one was for the oldest Irish peerage, the barony of Kinsale. The rightful heir was discovered in the person of a poor sailor boy of Newport, and his descendants still possess the title. The barony of Willoughby of Parham was also awarded to a family which had been for two generations settled in Virginia. In the early romantic days of colonization adventure, under Elizabeth and the Stuart kings, the younger scions of distinguished families flocked to the most exciting scene of action as they now do to Australia and New Zealand. The dying out of the elder branches often placed them in the position of inheritors of the hereditary dignities, though change of circumstances generally made them forgetful or careless of the fact. The true male heir of the great Percies, Earls of Northumberland, is supposed to be more likely to be found in Virginia by English genealogists than anywhere else, should he ever "turn up;" and there are several other important hereditary honors presumed to be held rather by failure of appearance in the real owners, than by rightful claim.

—A work that all true Scotchmen must regard as a national enterprise has recently been performed by the publication of the first complete collected edition of the "Writings of John Knox," the celebrated reformer. It has occupied the attention of the editor, Mr. David Laing, whose name is well known in connection with the national ancient literature of Scotland, for eighteen years. His labors have brought together a mass of information illustrating the life, character, and writings of the reformer and the history of his times, unrivalled for its extent and the recondite nature of the sources from whence it is derived. Knox's works may be divided into four classes—historical, admonitory, devotional, and epistolary. They comprise, together, six volumes royal octavo, the first and second being occupied with Knox's most important book at the present day, the "History of the Reformation in Scotland," printed from a collation of the various manuscripts and printed texts, and for the first time presented in a complete shape, with the illustrative documents, etc., on which it is founded. The "Memoir of the Author and his Family," bibliographical notices, notes, fac-similes, etc., render the edition a perfect literary monument to the memory of the reformer whose influence is still so strong in the land of his birth.

—An educational movement of considerable importance, in view of the source from which it springs, has just been started in England. If any department of literature might be supposed to be over occupied, either there or in this country, it is that of school-books. Yet the delegates of the Oxford Clarendon Press state that "they understand, from eminent schoolmasters and others who are authorities upon education, that there is still need of good school-books and manuals." To abridge their manifesto, they "are told that good English editions of almost all the Greek and Latin classics, read in the higher classes of public schools, are required, also grammar and exercise books adapted to them—that the histories at present read in schools are greatly below present requirements—and that English treatises on physical science, written with clearness and precision, and adapted for use in the higher classes of schools, etc., do not exist." They believe that the university may, with propriety and efficiency, do much towards remedying these defects and have therefore determined to issue a series of educational works, hoping to fill up some existing wants and to help in improving methods of teaching. The programme includes classics, history, physical science, English language and literature, mathematical works, a miscellaneous class including hand-books in art, music, literature, and the like, and modern languages. Particulars are given of nineteen works now in preparation, and others are speedily to follow. In history we notice a "A History of England to the Reign of Henry VIII.," by Goldwin Smith, professor of modern history; "A

History of Germany and of the Empire, down to the close of the Middle Ages," by J. Bryce, of Oriol College; "History of Greece," by E. A. Freeman, of Trinity College (author of a "History of Federal Governments"); "A Constitutional History of England," by Rev. W. Stubbs, of Trinity College (librarian to the Archbishop of Canterbury); "History of British India," by S. Owen, of Christ Church. The distinct recognition of the duty of an institution like the University of Oxford in this announcement, is a step far in advance of any yet taken by that or similar bodies in England, and bodes well for the cause of national education.

—The old subject of literary remuneration is again ventilated in Paris, where, indeed, authorship and all that relates to it possesses an active importance greater than in any other country. Contrasts between the past and the present are rife as a standard source of paragraph making. The actual large gains of contemporary authors are compared with those prevalent when Boileau sold "Le Lutrin" for 600 francs, Racine received only 200 francs for the manuscript of "Andromaque," and Delille obtained only 400 francs for his translation of the "Georgics" of Virgil. The 6,000 francs realized by Rousseau for his "Emile" was long quoted as an example of remarkable pecuniary success; nor were the 1,000 francs for which the author of "Paul and Virginia" sold his first work, "Voyage à l'Île de France," considered an unworthy remuneration. Even the existing generation of authors has experienced the vicissitudes that belong to two separate eras of authorship. George Sand wrote her first novel in conjunction with Jules Sandeau, and the two received 400 francs between them for their work. "Indiana," by that lady alone, was sold for 1,000 francs. She now receives from the *Revue des Deux Mondes* 500 francs per sheet for her communications. In 1823 Victor Hugo's romance of "Hans d'Islande" only gained him 300 francs. "Les Misérables" has already produced him more than a thousand times that sum. Dramatic authorship seems the most royal road to fortune among all the avenues that lead to the French Parnassus. M. Scribe left a property estimated at four millions of francs after starting on his career with 100 francs payment only, for his first work. There are thirty-five theatres now open at Paris of various kinds, so that there is an ample field for the exercise of varied talent in the composer and librettist as well as for the regular dramatic author. The "spectacles," indeed, or mere show pieces, are said to have been more profitable than *chef d'œuvres* of the regular drama. The arrangements for securing to authors a fair share of the profits of these pieces are more just than those of any other country, and might be copied with advantage.

—The work of ex-President James Buchanan, "The Administration on the Eve of the Rebellion," seems to have attracted more notice from the English press than it has met with in this country. It has been freely characterized by the leading journals as a book that at once explains and justifies the oblivion that shielded from view the first officer of the republic immediately on his retirement from office and made his name almost forgotten by each party during the contest immediately succeeding. It is said to paint him as essentially a man of compromise, hoping still to "make things pleasant" all round, if only principle was overlooked and a shallow and prevaricating expediency allowed to rule the hour. It is stated, in an article in *The Reader*, as "a curious fact, for whose truth the writer can vouch, that in the library of the Senate's Committee on Foreign Affairs, the members of which were leading secessionists, every passage in the diplomatic documents relating to the recognition of Belgium and Mexico was found scored and underlined when the Republicans took possession of the library. How soon the European powers might be expected to recognize the Confederacy was the subject which occupied the time and attention of men receiving the pay of the Union and entrusted with the duty of watching over its foreign interests."

—It is said that the library of Sir Charles Eastlake, the late president of the Royal Academy, and, as the most accomplished scholar in England in the history, antiquities, and literature of the fine arts, the possessor of an unrivalled collection of books on these subjects, is about to be dispersed, though strenuous efforts will be made to preserve it intact in connection with some public institution. It is remarked that the highest dignity in the profession seems going begging among artists. Upon the question of appointing a successor to Sir Charles in the chair formerly filled by Reynolds, West, and Lawrence, Macleise was the chosen candidate of the leading members, but he distinctly and unhesitatingly made known his purpose not to accept the position, his desire being to give all his life and energies to painting. At the last meeting of the Academy Sir Edwin Landseer was elected by a very full vote and a large majority, but he has declined to receive the title and position offered as his due by the voice of his brethren and the consent of popular opinion. No reason is alleged for his refusal, but he has been re-

quested by the Academy to reconsider his determination, and if he continues to decline the honor, another balloting must take place.

—The death of Dr. Petrie, vice-president of the Irish Academy, has removed the first antiquarian of the day who brought positive science to bear upon questions of Hibernian archaeology. For the material antiquities and ancient remains of Ireland he effected what scholars like O'Donovan and Eugene O'Curry have done for its history and literature. These men have founded a school of investigation before which the dreams and romance of authors such as Vallancey, O'Flaherty, etc., which made the very name of Celtic antiquities degrading, have vanished. Dr. Petrie's dissertation "On the Origin and Purpose of the Round Towers of Ireland" received a prize of £900 offered by the Irish Society, and may be considered to have effectually settled the question. He was the director of the historical and antiquarian departments of the Irish Ordnance Survey. A pension of £300 per annum was granted him by Government for his services.

—Though an Emperor, Napoleon III. is still a man, and is said to have derived great pleasure from the success of the first volume of his "Vie de César" in a purely commercial point of view. The publishers in London, Messrs. Cassell & Co., have had the gratification of forwarding to the imperial agents a sum much beyond the amount originally stipulated for the exclusive right of translation into English. The second volume, perhaps in consequence, is being rapidly pushed towards completion. The final proofs have been printed; the Emperor is now revising them. He fully appreciates that geography is one of the "eyes of history," and it will be illustrated with thirty-two maps. The volume is expected to be ready, in divers languages, about the middle of March.

—M. Du Chaillu is eminently a sensational traveller. His last explorations, rudely interrupted by a conflict with the natives, from which he with difficulty escaped, has not been productive of any novelty so startling as the gorilla was found to be in the previous narrative of his African travels; but he now brings us news of the pigmy races supposed, ever since the days of Homer and Herodotus, to inhabit the interior of the continent, "the small infantry warred on by cranes" of the poet. A little people called "Obonyo" he discovered, and is the first to describe. He calls them the gypsies of the region—of migratory habits, having no dwelling or shelter but under trees, and living by trapping wild animals for food. They have only short tufts of hair on the head, in distinction from the settled inhabitants, who pride themselves on an immensely large *chevelure*, and wear a wild, anxious, and timorous expression of countenance. The tallest adult man measured was four feet six inches high, and the women varied from that height to four feet. M. Du Chaillu's account is confirmed, as far as hearsay evidence can do it, by Mr. Winwood Reade, who testifies to the general belief in the existence of a pigmy race in the far interior of West Africa, and also by the missionary, Dr. Krapf, who had met with single individuals of the species on the opposite coast of the continent, brought by slave-dealers from the interior equatorial regions. M. Du Chaillu is now preparing his new book of travels from the fragments of journals, etc., saved on his escape from the natives.

WIVES AND DAUGHTERS.*

WE cannot help thinking that in "Wives and Daughters" the late Mrs. Gaskell has added to the number of those works of fiction—of which we cannot perhaps count more than a score as having been produced in our time—which will outlast the duration of their novelty and continue for years to come to be read and relished for a higher order of merits. Besides being the best of the author's own tales—putting aside "Cranford," that is, which as a work of quite other pretensions ought not to be weighed against it, and which seems to us manifestly destined in its modest way to become a classic—it is also one of the very best novels of its kind. So delicately, so elaborately, so artistically, so truthfully, and heartily is the story wrought out, that the hours given to its perusal seem like hours actually spent, in the flesh as well as the spirit, among the scenes and people described, in the atmosphere of their motives, feelings, traditions, associations. The gentle skill with which the reader is slowly involved in the tissue of the story; the delicacy of the handwork which has perfected every mesh of the net in which he finds himself ultimately entangled; the lightness of touch which, while he stands all unsuspecting of literary artifice, has stopped every issue into the real world; the admirable, inaudible, invisible exercise of creative power, in short, with which a new and arbitrary world is reared over his heedless head—a world insidiously inclusive of him (such is the *assoupiement* of his critical sense), complete in every particular, from the divine

*"Wives and Daughters. A Novel. By Mrs. Gaskell." New York: Harper & Brothers. 1866.

blue of the summer sky to the June-bugs in the roses, from Cynthia Kirkpatrick and her infinite revelations of human nature to old Mrs. Goodenough and her provincial bad grammar—these marvellous results, we say, are such as to compel the reader's very warmest admiration, and to make him feel, in his gratitude for this seeming accession of social and moral knowledge, as if he made but a poor return to the author in testifying, no matter how strongly, to the fact of her genius.

For Mrs. Gaskell's genius was so very composite as a quality, it was so obviously the offspring of her affections, her feelings, her associations, and (considering that, after all, it *was* genius) was so little of an intellectual matter, that it seems almost like slighting these charming facts to talk of them under a collective name, especially when that name is a term so coarsely and disrespectfully synthetic as the word genius has grown to be. But genius is of many kinds, and we are almost tempted to say that that of Mrs. Gaskell strikes us as being little else than a peculiar play of her personal character. In saying this we wish to be understood as valuing not her intellect the less, but her character the more. Were we touching upon her literary character at large, we should say that in her literary career as a whole she displayed, considering her success, a minimum of head. Her career was marked by several little literary indiscretions, which show how much writing was a matter of pure feeling with her. Her "Life of Miss Brontë," for instance, although a very readable and delightful book, is one which a woman of strong head could not possibly have written; for, full as it is of fine qualities, of affection, of generosity, of sympathy, of imagination, it lacks the prime requisites of a good biography. It is written with a signal want of judgment and of critical power; and it has always seemed to us that it tells the reader considerably more about Mrs. Gaskell than about Miss Brontë. In the tale before us this same want of judgment, as we may still call it in the absence of a better name, presuming that the term applies to it only as it stands contrasted with richer gifts, is shown; not in the general management of the story, nor yet in the details, most of which are as good as perfect, but in the way in which, as the tale progresses, the author loses herself in its current very much as we have seen that she causes the reader to do.

The book is very long and of an interest so quiet that not a few of its readers will be sure to vote it dull. In the early portion especially the details are so numerous and so minute that even a very well-disposed reader will be tempted to lay down the book and ask himself of what possible concern to him are the clean frocks and the French lessons of little Molly Gibson. But if he will have patience awhile he will see. As an end these modest domestic facts are indeed valueless; but as a means to what the author would probably have called a "realization" of her central idea, *i. e.*, Molly Gibson, a product, to a certain extent, of clean frocks and French lessons, they hold an eminently respectable place. As he gets on in the story he is thankful for them. They have educated him to a proper degree of interest in the heroine. He feels that he knows her the better and loves her the more for a certain acquaintance with the minutie of her homely bourgeois life. Molly Gibson, however, in spite of the almost fraternal relation which is thus established between herself and the reader—or perhaps, indeed, because of it, for if no man is a hero to his *valet de chambre*, it may be said that no young lady is a heroine to one who, if we may so express our meaning, has known her since she was "so high"—Molly Gibson, we repeat, commands a slighter degree of interest than the companion figure of Cynthia Kirkpatrick. Of this figure, in a note affixed to the book in apology for the absence of the final chapter, which Mrs. Gaskell did not live to write, the editor of the magazine in which the story originally appeared speaks in terms of very high praise; and yet, as it seems to us, of praise thoroughly well deserved. To describe Cynthia as she stands in Mrs. Gaskell's pages is impossible. The reader who cares to know her must trace her attentively out. She is a girl of whom, in life, any one of her friends, so challenged, would hesitate to attempt to give a general account, and yet whose specific sayings and doings and looks such a friend would probably delight to talk about. This latter has been Mrs. Gaskell's course; and if, in a certain sense, it shows her weakness, it also shows her wisdom. She had probably known a Cynthia Kirkpatrick, a résumé of whose character she had given up as hopeless; and she has here accordingly taken a generous revenge in an analysis as admirably conducted as any we remember to have read. She contents herself with a simple record of the innumerable small facts of the young girl's daily life, and leaves the reader to draw his conclusions. He draws them as he proceeds, and yet leaves them always subject to revision; and he derives from the author's own marked abdication of the authoritative generalizing tone which, when the other characters are concerned, she has used as a right, a very delightful sense of the mystery of Cynthia's nature and of those large proportions which mystery always suggests. The fact is that genius is always difficult to formulate, and that Cynthia had a genius

for fascination. Her whole character subserved this end. Next after her we think her mother the best drawn character in the book. Less difficult indeed to draw than the daughter, the very nicest art was yet required to keep her from merging, in the reader's sight, into an amusing caricature—a sort of commixture of a very mild solution of Becky Sharp with an equally feeble decoction of Mrs. Nickleby. Touch by touch, under the reader's eye, she builds herself up into her selfish and silly and consummately natural completeness.

Mrs. Gaskell's men are less successful than her women, and her hero in this book, making all allowance for the type of man intended, is hardly interesting enough in juxtaposition with his vivid sweethearts. Still his defects as a masculine being are negative and not positive, which is something to be thankful for, now that lady-novelists are growing completely to eschew the use of simple and honest youths. Osborne Hamley, a much more ambitious figure than Roger, and ambitious as the figure of Cynthia is ambitious, is to our judgment less successful than either of these; and we think the praise given him in the editorial note above-mentioned is excessive. He has a place in the story, and he is delicately and even forcibly conceived, but he is practically little more than a suggestion. Mrs. Gaskell had exhausted her poetry upon Cynthia, and she could spare to Osborne's very dramatic and even romantic predicaments little more than the close prosaic handling which she had found sufficient for the more vulgar creations. Where this handling accords thoroughly with the spirit of the figures, as in the case of Doctor Gibson and Squire Hamley, the result is admirable. It is good praise of these strongly marked, masculine, middle-aged men to say that they are as forcibly drawn as if a wise masculine hand had drawn them. Perhaps the best scene in the book (as the editor remarks) is the one in which the squire smokes a pipe with one of his sons after his high words with the other. We have intimated that this scene is prosaic; but let not the reader take fright at the word. If an author can be powerful, delicate, humorous, pathetic, dramatic, within the strict limits of homely prose, we see no need of his "dropping into poetry," as Mr. Dickens says. It is Mrs. Gaskell's highest praise to have been all of this, and yet to have written "an everyday story" (as, if we mistake not, the original title of "Wives and Daughters" ran) in an everyday style.

MARIAN ROOKE.*

THIS is an average novel and a very bad book—a distinction, as it seems to us, easy to understand. There have been many novels, contemptible or ridiculous in point of dramatic interest, which have obtained a respectful attention through the wisdom of their tone or the elevation of their style. There have been others, skilful and absorbing in the matter of plot, which the reader has nevertheless flung aside half-read, as intolerably foolish, or intolerably vicious in spirit. The plot of "Marian Rooke," although it can hardly be called very skilful on the writer's part or very absorbing on the reader's, is yet decently interesting, as plots go, and may readily suffice to the entertainment of those jolly barbarians of taste who read novels only for what they call the "story." "Marian Rooke" has an abundance—a superabundance—of story, a vast deal of incident, of variety, of sentiment, of passion, of description, of conversation, and of that facetious element which no gentleman's novel should be without. These merits, however, are not by themselves of so high an order as to justify us to our conscience in an attempt to impose them upon the public recognition; we should have been content to leave their destinies to fortune. The part of duty in the matter, since duty there is, is to point out the defects of the work.

"Marian Rooke," then, is a tale of the "younger world," or, in other words, of life in the United States. If we are not mistaken, it was published in England either just before, or simultaneously with, its appearance in New York; and if on this point, too, we are not wrong in our facts, it met with a warmer welcome on the other side of the water than it has encountered on this, as, indeed, it had every reason to do, inasmuch as we may convey a certain idea of its spirit in saying that, whereas it was written for English circulating libraries, it was written only, if we may so express it, at American ones. This air of divided nationality which attended its production is an index of a similar feature in the conception of the book. The reader vacillates between setting the author down as a consummate Yankee and dubbing him as a consummate cockney. At one moment he asserts himself an Englishman who has a perilously small amount of learning about the United States, and at another he seems conclusively to prove himself one of our dear fellow-countrymen, with his honest head slightly turned by a glimpse of the carriage going to one of the Queen of England's drawing-

* "Marian Rooke; or, The Quest for Fortune. A Tale of the Younger World. By Henry D. Sedley." New York: Sheldon & Co. 1865.

rooms. It remains a constant source of perplexity that he should be at once so poor an American and so poor an Englishman. No Englishman ever entertained for New England the magnificent loathing which burns in Mr. Sedley's pages. What is New England to him or he to New England that he should thus rack his ingenuity in her behalf? So divinely disinterested an hostility was never inspired by a mere interest in abstract truth. A tour in the United States in midwinter, with a fatal succession of bad hotels, exorbitant hack-drivers, impertinent steamboat clerks, thankless female fellow-travellers, and terrific railway collisions, might possibly create in a generous British bosom a certain lusty personal antipathy to our unmannerly democracy; a vehement, honest expression of which could not fail to make a chapter of picturesque and profitable reading. But it takes an emancipated, a disfranchised, an outlawed, or, if you please, a disappointed, American to wish us to believe that he detests us simply on theory. This impression the author of "Marian Rooke" would fain convey. Therefore we say we set him down as one of ourselves. But he betrays, incidentally, as we have intimated, so—what shall we call it?—so lively an ignorance of our manners and customs, our method of action and of speech, that this hypothesis also is not without a certain measure of disproof. He has vouchsafed us no information on the contested point; and this it is that prevents conjecture from being impertinent, for it is founded solely upon the evidence of the story itself, which, as a book once fairly and squarely published, is utterly given over to the public use, and to all such probing, weighing, and analyzing as may help the public to understand it. Further reflection, then, on the mooted point leads us to the conclusion that in order to furnish Mr. Sedley with any local habitation whatever we must consider one of the two conflicting elements of his tale as a purely dramatic characteristic. As the conflict lies between his perfect familiarity with some points of American life and his singular and arbitrary ignorance of others, we must decide that either his knowledge or his ignorance is assumed. And as his ignorance is generally not so much an absence of knowledge and of statement as positive false knowledge and false statement, we embrace the hypothesis that his scathing indifference to the facts of the case is the result of a good deal of painful ingenuity. And this is what we have in mind in calling his book at the outset a bad book. A book which, from an avowedly critical stand-point—even if it were a very flimsy novel—should roundly abuse and reprobate all things American, would command our respect, if it did not command our agreement. But a book projected (intellectually) from the midst of us, as the present one betrays itself to have been, intended to strike us by a rebound from the ignorant sympathy of foreign readers, displaying its knowledge of us by the possession of a large number of facts and by the petty perversion of every fact which it does possess, and leaving an issue for escape from the charge of deliberate misrepresentation (so good a Yankee is the author) by a species of implicit self-reference to a community where a certain ignorance of our habits is no more than natural,—a book in which the author has put himself to so much trouble to do such an ugly piece of work, commands neither our agreement nor our respect.

The hero of the tale is the son of a dissolute English gentleman—time-honored and familiar combination—who, having immigrated to this country, married an American wife. In this manner originated the fatal "kink" in the young man's nature—the conflict between his literal allegiance to the land of his birth and his spiritual affinity with the proud home of his ancestors. Marian Rooke, a burning Creole beauty, the daughter of a rich Louisiana planter, is similarly at odds with fortune, it having been discovered on her father's death that she is the child of a slave. Hence a beautiful bond of sympathy between the two. We do not propose to relate their adventures. It is enough to say that these are cast successively in California, in Europe, in Boston, in Berkshire County, Massachusetts (where the local color becomes quite appalling), and in the city of New York. The hero and heroine are duly joined in matrimony at the close, and subsequently, we are informed, the hero does "yeoman's service" in the late war, on which side the author (still like a shrewd Yankee) refuses to tell us, so leaving in considerable doubt (since so essential a point is perforce slighted) whether he really fought on either. He serves throughout the book as an instrument for eliciting in their utmost intensity the vulgar manners and sordid morals of the American people. He is, probably in view of this fact, the most deeply pathetic character in the whole extent of fiction. We have no space categorically to refute the ingenious accusations which Mr. Sedley has levied upon our manners and our speech. We must content ourselves with saying that as, if they were true, they would tell a sad tale of our vulgarity, so, since they are false, they tell a sad tale of the vulgarity of Mr. Sedley's imagination. What California was, socially, fifteen years ago, we cannot say; but it was certainly not the headquarters of politeness, and we accordingly leave it to Mr. Sedley's tender mercies. But we are better qualified to

judge of New York and Boston. Here is a young lady of fashion, of the former city, welcoming her mother's guests at a *conversazione*: "We are very gay to-night, although promiscuous. Talk has been lively. There are a good many ladies round. Pa and Professor Sukkar are conferring on immorality. Pa is speaking now. Hush!" Here is another young lady, with the best blood in the land in her veins, conferring with her mother as to the probable character of the hero, who has just made his *entrée* into New York society: "Heavens, no! Clinton would have never given letters to a politician; whatever his faults, my brother would never have introduced a politician into the family of the Parapets!" "Unless sinning through ignorance, perhaps," suggests the mother. "Ignorance! surely their odious names are familiar enough. To be sure we do not read the detestable newspapers, their organs, but the men do; and I am confident either papa or Clinton would know if Mr. Gifford had been compromised in politics." Having represented every American in his pages, of no matter what station in life, as using a form of the traditional Sam Slick dialect, in which all the humorous quaintness is omitted and all the extravagant coarseness is retained, the author makes generous amends at last by the elegant language which he puts into the mouths of the Parapets, the family of the young lady just quoted; and by the still more elegant distinction which he claims for them. Into various details of their dreary snobbishness we will not plunge. They constitute, in the author's sight, the one redeeming feature of our deplorable social condition; and he assures us that, incredible as the fact may appear, they yet do actually flourish in aristocratic idleness and seclusion in the midst of our universal barbarism. This, surely, is the most unkindest cut of all. It suggests, moreover, fearful reflections as to what our fate would have been had Mr. Sedley been minded to be complimentary.

GENERAL BUTLER AND CHAPLAIN HUDSON.*

GENERAL BUTLER'S reply to Mr. Hudson's attack of last summer comes in the form of a letter from himself to the Bishop of Rhode Island, accompanied by another to himself from John I. Davenport, "late Lieutenant A. D. C. and Assistant Provost-Marshal," etc., and an appendix containing, in a letter to Judge Holt, under date of January 14, 1865, the charges and specifications against Mr. Hudson. Mr. Davenport's letter is in answer to one from the general requesting him to report what facts he may have knowledge of with regard to the matters spoken of by the chaplain in his pamphlet, Mr. Davenport having been the officer in charge of him when in custody, and comprises the official documents relating to these matters, together with a running comment by the lieutenant.

The first charge is absence without leave. On the 29th of May, 1864, General Gillmore ordered Mr. Hudson to New York on special duty, to superintend the publication of some official documents relating to affairs in the Department of the South. This was certainly sufficient leave, *prima facie*, for his absence. But other circumstances prevent this transaction from being clear. Mr. Hudson, it will be remembered, had written, according to his own admission, a private letter to Mr. Godwin, of the *Post*, commenting adversely upon General Butler's management of the affair at Drewry's Bluff, which Mr. Godwin had published. The letter, or part of it, was copied into an editorial of the *Herald*, where General Butler seeing for the first time a statement that "General Gillmore earnestly advised him to make his position secure by entrenchments against sorties, or any movements of the enemy to oust him from them," and that he answered "that he could not pause for defensive preparation," sends to General Gillmore for explanation. General Gillmore replies that he does not know who the author of the editorial in the *Herald* was, and that he did not, and does not, authorize it. In the examination of Mr. Hudson by General Butler, which Lieutenant Davenport took down in short-hand at the time, and which is now printed, the following questions and answers occur:

"Q. Did not Gen. Gillmore know of your writing that letter before it was sent? A. I do not know (hesitatingly). Q. Did he not know of it before it was sent? A. I think so. Q. Do you not know that he did? A. Yes, sir. Q. And before you went? A. Yes, sir. Q. And was not that the reason of his sending you away? A. I can't say that I know it was. Q. Do not you know that was the reason? A. I thought at the time that it was. Q. Had you any doubt in your own mind on the subject? A. I did not know how necessary the business was that General Gillmore professedly sent me on. I thought that was the reason of his sending me away. I had but little conversation with General Gillmore."

Thus the whole matter is left in obscurity. The question is, whether Mr. Hudson had sufficient reason for leaving the army—whether there was sufficient collusion between Gen. Gillmore and himself to make his absence im-

* "Official Documents relating to a Chaplain's Campaign (not) with General Butler, but in New York. *Audi alteram partem*." Lowell: Charles Hunt, printer, Exchange Building. 1865. 8vo, pp. 3-48.

proper? Gen. Butler, elsewhere in the examination, tells his prisoner that the business on which he was sent to New York was a pretence, and that the real object was to avoid the appearance of complicity between Gen. Gillmore and himself. Gen. Gillmore states that he did not know who the author of the *Herald's* editorial was and did not authorize it; Mr. Hudson says that he did know of the authorship of the letter. Mr. Hudson also says that the facts contained in his letter were got from officers of his regiment. Shall we say that Gen. Gillmore in speaking of the *Herald's* editorial did not mean to commit himself with reference to the *Post's* letter, or that Mr. Hudson stated a falsehood in saying what he did of the general's knowledge of his writing? Had there been a court-martial, all this might have been ascertained—by what right Mr. Hudson wrote his letter; where he obtained his information; why, if a private letter, Mr. Godwin published it; what, if any, collusion there was between Mr. Hudson and Gen. Gillmore; there having been no trial, we can arrive at no very satisfactory conclusion. It looks very badly for Mr. Hudson, however, that he should have left the army to attend to a purely private enterprise of a superior officer, that he never received after leaving the front any instructions as to that business, and that he drew pay during part of the time of his absence.

The second charge brought by General Butler is disobedience of orders. To this Mr. Hudson can make no defence. Some palliation there was in the fact of the sickness of his wife and himself; but he should, undoubtedly, have reported himself immediately on receiving General Butler's order in July, remanding him to his regiment.

Mr. Hudson's pamphlet, as our readers will recollect, on his side charges Gen. Butler chiefly with imprisoning him, after his return to camp in obedience to orders, in an illegal and brutal manner, and for an unlawful time, and with ill-treating him really for the purpose of forcing him to criminate Gen. Gillmore with regard to the facts contained in his letter, which he had assured Gen. Butler he did not get from Gen. Gillmore. He was put in a "bull-pen," where were confined rebel prisoners and the refuse of the army. It was impossible to escape from vermin. The weather was cold, the ground so wet as to be almost muddy, he had no blanket, and no bed save a few barrel staves. The captain in charge promised to get him a blanket or two, but none came; at length a corporal borrowed one for him, and wrapping that round his shoulders, he spent most of the first night walking up and down in front of his tent. He could not find means to supply himself with wholesome food, as he was "not allowed at first to speak with any but officers of the guard, and these were all afraid to do anything for him, or let anything be done." These sufferings were alleviated by some members of his regiment; but his imprisonment dragged on, and after some weeks the prisoners were removed to a new enclosure, smaller than the first, and filled with men of the worst description, the ground being such, too, that after any considerable fall of rain the chaplain's quarters were flooded. With regard to the attempt to make him criminate Gen. Gillmore, Mr. Hudson gives an account of an interview between himself and the colonel of his regiment, after he had been four or five days in the "bull-pen," in which Col. Serrell said that he had been having a long talk with Gen. Butler about him, that the general disclaimed all hard feelings towards him, that if a trial were had it would be mainly with a view to bring out what he knew about Gen. Gillmore, that in that case Gen. Butler advised him to plead guilty, as he would fare better so, that under the circumstances Gen. Butler did not consider the absence without leave any great offence, while the fact of his having been all along a known and allowed correspondent of the press left little cause against him on that score.

As to the "bull-pen," Gen. Butler denies that there was any enclosure around the tent or camp in which Mr. Hudson was confined, while Lieut. Davenport admits that there was a line of sentinels—to all intents and purposes a very safe enclosure. Gen. Butler says that the tent of his prisoner was precisely like that of his staff officers, while Lieut. Davenport adds that it was situated in the provost camp. As to the character of the second prison, neither Gen. Butler nor Lieut. Davenport deny anything alleged by Mr. Hudson except that the building used was a stable, either cleaned or uncleared, the latter having stated that it was an uncleared stable. This apparent or real hardship the general might have prevented had he chosen to obey the 77th Article of War, which requires that whenever any officer shall be charged with a crime, he shall be arrested and confined in his barracks, quarters, or tent.

Of the illegal length of the imprisonment it is easy to judge by reference to an act of Congress approved July 17, 1862, which enacts that whenever the officer by whose orders another is arrested does not take care that within eight days after the arrest a copy of charges shall be served on the prisoner, the arrest shall cease. Mr. Hudson was confined some fifty days, copy of charges was served, and he was never tried. Under date of Jan.

14, 1865, after being relieved, Gen. Butler wrote to Gen. Holt, at the office of the Bureau of Military Justice, enclosing the charges and specifications (dated Jan. 2) which should have been served on Mr. Hudson by the 27th of September. Gen. Butler says that the movements of the army gave him no time to organize a court proper for his trial, while Lieut. Davenport says a good deal about the unfitness of a trial where the general would have been both accuser and reviewing officer. The act of the 29th of May, 1830 (Rev. U. S. A. Regulations, 1863, p. 495), provided for this contingency by ordering that the court for such trials shall be appointed by the President. The difficulties in the case, indeed, might all have been obviated by a careful study of the Regulations.

To the charge that Gen. Butler confined him with the purpose of compelling him to criminate Gen. Gillmore, Gen. Butler has not replied, nor has he denied the conversation referred to above between himself and Col. Serrell.

Gen. Butler, in his letter to the Bishop of Rhode Island, says that he refused the chaplain's request to preach, while in prison, on the ground that he thought, and he doubts not the readers of this book will think, that we had had enough of that. If there is anything else which we have had quite enough of, it is the general's oaths and overweening insolence. In the examination of Chaplain Hudson, Gen. Butler three times calls Gen. Gillmore a ———; "epithets," says Lieut. Davenport, "more forcible than polished." He tells Mr. Hudson that he lies, and the allusion of Mr. Davenport to Grant is so scurrilous that even Gen. Butler surprises us by printing it. It is a pity that a general who was of such service during the war should have made a *fiasco* of his last military operations through his conceit, and should now be displaying that unamiable quality at no one's expense but his own.

The Myriapoda of North America. By Horatio C. Wood, Jr., M.D. From the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society. (Sherman & Co., Philadelphia.)—This memoir was originally prepared for the Smithsonian contributions, but the manuscript was destroyed at the burning of the Smithsonian building in the winter of 1864-65. Luckily, the illustrations were saved. The text has been reproduced, and the whole now appears in the memoirs of the American Philosophical Society. It contains a strictly scientific description of a race of animals better known as centipedes, comprising about ninety species, which no American naturalist seems to have studied since the days of Rafinesque and Say. The materials contained in the museums of Washington, Philadelphia, and Cambridge, comprising many thousand specimens, were placed in Dr. Wood's hands, and he has certainly improved the excellent opportunities thus afforded him. The memoir contains, first, an outline of the external anatomy of the myriapoda; secondly, a descriptive classification of them, largely illustrated with wood-cuts, giving the anatomical details on which the zoological characters are based; thirdly, a synopsis of genera and species; and, lastly, remarks on their natural arrangement.

Dr. Wood considers the myriapods a distinct class, in which opinion he differs from Brandt, Gervais, and Dana, who make them simply an order of insects, but agrees with Leach, Latreille, and Newport. The last-named naturalist, Newport, who assigns to myriapods a position near the worm, is, undoubtedly, the highest authority on the subject. This conclusion is sustained by the facts revealed by embryological studies. In view of the great light thrown by Agassiz on the natural affinities of other groups of animals through embryological data, one cannot but feel that an extension of Mr. Newport's researches on the development of centipedes would be of great importance, and would help to clear up much of the confusion into which naturalists have thrown the classification of the subordinate groups. The investigation of the anatomy and physiology, the development and habits, of this whole class, still offers an almost untrodden field, which we hope Dr. Wood will occupy.

The plates illustrating this memoir appear to have been drawn from specimens preserved in alcohol, and do not give a correct conception of the natural arrangement of the limbs. The fore and hind symmetry, so obvious in the living specimen, is wholly lost in the plates, except in the case of *Cermatia*, where it is correctly represented.

The Universal Pathfinder and Business Man's Pocket Companion. Being a Guide for all People, to all Subjects, and to all Lands. By M. N. Olmsted. (James Miller, New York.)—Though not in the strictest sense a man of business, we place ourselves confidently in the hands of this obliging guide. Beginning with the globe itself, we are gently borne through the census of the North American aborigines and the Declaration of Independence to the page where the Articles of Confederation ought to be; stop long enough with the Constitution to discover that the public are in error in supposing the latest amendment of that charter to be the thirteenth article; learn the history of our flag, and draw a parallel between Washington and Lincoln; and bridge the period between our two revolutions with tables of the popular vote at each election, of Presidents and Cabinets, of State populations, etc. We return to our muttons on page 123, with an estimate of the number of people whose feet now press the earth—amount of pressure not calculated—and after more census tables, for both hemispheres, wind up with a cheerful Malthusian page on massacres, with an account of travelling on the "Old Shades Valley Railroad," whose terminus is *Destruction dépot*. Then we go back a little to the seven wonders of the world,

and ancient chronology, followed by the principal modern dates, together with a list of impolite things to be avoided and hints to travellers. We are to avoid, for instance, "receiving a present without expressing gratitude," and are charged, as travellers, to "be always pleasant"—a hint which we strongly suspect to have been interpolated by the directors of the Camden and Amboy Railroad. Finally, we are asked if we love little girls, and get some definitions of foreign terms, etc. Seriously, this is a book which is not without its convenience, but in which a large amount of precious space is wasted. Its title is absurdly pretentious.

Home Life. What it is and what it needs. By John F. W. Ware. (Boston: Wm. V. Spencer.)—The papers here collected into a book made their first appearance three or four years ago in the "Monthly Religious Magazine," where they attracted considerable attention. They are thoughtful, tender, wise, and prudent, evidently the work of one whose own home-life is more to him than all his other ventures and successes. It must have been written out of a full heart. In certain quarters it is customary for the clergyman to present the persons whom he marries with a little volume, the contents of which are thought to be related in some way to the case in hand. The volume ordinarily is good for nothing. But of late we hear that this book has been used on such occasions. We doubt if there is any better. It is full of practical suggestions. But it contains a great deal of advice that would be very tardy after the putting on of marriage rings. Some of its best portions seek to find the laws which ought to govern men and women in those states which precede the matrimonial. The chapter upon "Home, the Residence," will sound like bitter mockery to citizens of Brooklyn and New York, who might like well enough to have houses of their own, but who count themselves lucky if they get anything at all and are not driven into boarding-houses or the street. The custom of boarding is so prevalent to day, and is so rapidly increasing, that a book of this sort ought to take cognizance of its merits, if it possesses any, which no one can for a moment doubt who has not given it a trial. The author has a timely word about our city tenements. Thinking of these, all lesser miseries are easily forgotten. But when the poor have been attended to, will some one say a word for those unfortunates who have "neither poverty nor riches," but whose yearly stipend in the city, though sounding rather large, yields them less comfort and convenience than the day laborer can purchase with his wages in the outlying villages and towns?

The Sunday Book of Poetry. (Sever & Francis, Cambridge.)—This is a book to be enjoyed on Sunday or on any other day. But if the reader were not told so in the preface it probably would not occur to him that the compiler intended it for children between the ages of eight and fourteen years. We are tempted to ask in what respect the book would have been different if it had been written for grown men and women. And we are not willing to believe that there does not exist material for such a book as our compiler had the good-will to attempt, which should not be namby-pamby on the one hand or on the other hand subtle and metaphysical. These are the two extremes that she professes to avoid. With reference to the first, the book is a success. Not so with reference to the second. It contains many verses that are exceedingly abstruse. The fact that "Keble's Christian Year" has been very generously used is proof enough of this. Here, too, are many of George Herbert's fine conceits. Their meaning will be lost upon nine children out of ten. If a Sunday book of poetry is really a desideratum for the child, we trust the attempt will be repeated, and rewarded with a larger measure of success. But no great advantage will be won over the present compilation until it is agreed that sacred poetry need not contain a reference to the Deity, or involve the sentiment of obligation, but may converse with beauty and affection not less than with responsibility and God. In so far as this book is a failure it is mainly on account of its refusal to see this. Dr. Johnson's definition of sacred poetry is accepted and applied. Further than this we doubt if the compiler is acquainted with the tastes of children well enough to satisfy them in a book. And yet for all that can be said against it, the book is full of beautiful and holy thoughts, and has been published elegantly enough to suit the most fastidious hand and eye.

Rebel Invasion of Missouri and Kansas, etc., October and November, 1864. By Richard J. Hinton, late Captain 2d Kansas Col'd Vols. Second edition. (Church & Goodman, Chicago; F. W. Marshall, Leavenworth.)—The unanimity with which the people of Kansas rose to repel the invasion of Gen. Sterling Price, which threatened incalculable disaster not only to themselves but to the cause of the Union, deserved the honorable record which Captain Hinton has made of it. He rightly remarks that such an uprising had no parallel during the war—neither when John Morgan went galloping through Indiana and Ohio, nor when Gen. Lee paid his unwelcome visit to the Dutch burghers of Pennsylvania. The narrative is by one who was himself a participant in the rout of the invader, and its style is always earnest and unaffected, though not always grammatical and often crude. The reader's interest and sympathies are quickly enlisted and well sustained to the end. As a monograph of a brilliant episode in the late war against rebellion this work has more than a local and transient value. The author seldom indulges in military criticism, but he seems to imply that Gen. Rosecrans was wanting in alertness and promptitude both in discovering the strength and whereabouts of the advancing enemy and in sending relief to Kansas when the object of Price's expedition was manifest. It is pleasant to commend the insertion of maps of the various battle-fields, besides very faithful likenesses of the principal actors in the Federal defence.

The Phenomena of Plant Life. By Leo H. Grindon. (Nichols & Noyes, Boston.)—This little book was obviously intended for general readers; it is free from technicalities, and is written in a style which doubtless attracts many persons, though not many of the more intelligent class. Only the surface of things is touched upon, and there are more loose, and we should

say wild, statements in it than we care to copy. Jussieu would surely be surprised to find that the three great classes of plants according to the "natural system" were recognized in the Mosaic account of the creation—that they are, as the author tells us, "enumerated by the inspired writer;" and further, that "learned and pious men have been led from this circumstance to believe that at the very gateway of Holy Writ there is set forth the great principle of triplicity, which science in these later ages has demonstrated." We agree with the author that "almost the last objects we should look for in a commentary on a statement in Genesis are the sprouting seeds of April." The book may, perhaps, stimulate some to seek further and look deeper, and so good may possibly come of the reading of it.

Sermons of the Rev. Francis A. Baker, Priest of the Congregation of St. Paul. With a Memoir of his Life. By Rev. A. F. Hewit. (Lawrence Kehoe, New York.)—Father Baker was a native of Baltimore, a graduate of Princeton, and for eight years a minister of the Episcopal Church. Converted in 1853 to Catholicism, he exhibited the greatest devotion to the new faith, and was an untiring missionary to the day of his death. That he was earnest, conscientious, and humane, we learn from the memoir, but also unmistakably from his portrait. His sermons are brief, addressed to the common heart and reason of his hearers, and remarkably free from clerical assumptions of authority. Quotations from the Scriptures abound as in Protestant discourses, and are mainly relied upon for persuasion. The sermon on "The Duty of Growing in Christian Knowledge" is liberal and philosophical to a degree not usual in the pulpits of any denomination.

A Third Reader. By Marcius Willson. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—We advise naughty children to avoid this school-book. It places them in a very disagreeable light; it is in fact pointed at them all the way through. For fear lest the wide-spaced, open-lettered lessons may not convey to them a realizing sense of their wickedness, there is a barb called a moral appended to each one, and the teacher is directed how to use it and sharpen it. This, it seems to us, is rather severe on the scholars, and sufficiently uncomplimentary to the teacher; and we are quite positive that if we had to compile a reading-book for the young, we should make good morals and natural history subordinate to elocution, and consult in our selections what was interesting rather than instructive; and, if we had any designs upon the character and consciences of our readers, should diligently conceal them, instead of exposing the conspiracy between ourselves and the teachers on every page and at every turn.

Mosaics of Human Life. By Elizabeth A. Thurston. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—One cannot look through this selection without being put into a grateful humor with the editor, who has taken the trouble to group so many pleasant things together, with such threads of coherence as hold one's own rambling thoughts one to another. Mrs. Thurston's reading has been generous and general, and she has not found any human author alien to her. So, we have not only passages from Goethe and Dante and Cervantes, and recondite poets and philosophers, but sayings from Fanny Fern and from even lesser people; and sentiments from singers whose fame has not yet passed the newspapers. It is pleasing to find that in so motley an assemblage, drawn in such a democratic spirit from so many sources, the literary company is seldom vulgar or disagreeable.

Memorial Service for Three Hundred Thousand Union Soldiers. With the Commemorative Discourse, by Joseph P. Thompson, D.D. (Loyal Publication Society, New York.)—It was our good fortune to be of the huge throng at Dr. Thompson's church that listened to the inspiring music and words evoked by the memory of the Federal dead, one Sunday evening in December. So much of that impressive service as could be preserved in print is contained in this pamphlet, and bears its mingled freight of consolation and lofty encouragement to all who mourn for our departed heroes. The discourse alludes to the greatness of their sacrifice as measured by its spontaneousness, its endurance, and its results; and from their graves derives a lesson of faith in the principles of justice and humanity by which, under Providence, the world is ordered.

Works of Charles Dickens. Household Edition. Our Mutual Friend. Four vols. (Hurd & Houghton, New York.)—Our judgment of this, the latest of Mr. Dickens's productions, has been already made known to our readers in a very full discussion of its merits. The publishers, as in duty bound, have not suffered its literary inequality to affect its appearance in the elegant series with which the public are familiar. The four illustrations are this time all from the pencil of Mr. Darley, but possess no striking merit. The press-work is admirable.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE COQUETTE; OR, THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF ELIZA WHARTON. By a Lady of Massachusetts. THE QUEEN'S REVENGE. By Wilkie Collins. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION. Drawn from Nature and Revelation, and Applied to Female Education in the Upper Classes. By the author of "Amy Herbert." Two vols. in one. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

THE RESOURCES OF THE UNION. A Lecture by Henry C. Carey. Henry Carey Baird, Philadelphia.

A TEXT-BOOK ON ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE. For the Use of Schools and Families. By John C. Draper, M.D.—WIVES AND DAUGHTERS. A Novel. By Mrs. Gaskell.—WAR OF THE REBELLION; OR, SCYLLA AND CHARYBDIS. By H. S. Foote. Harper & Bros., New York.

THE CRITERION; OR, THE TEST OF TALK ABOUT FAMILIAR THINGS. By Henry T. Tuckerman.—OUR MUTUAL FRIEND. (Household Edition of the Works of Charles Dickens.) Four vols. Hurd & Houghton, New York.

GRANT AND HIS CAMPAIGNS: A MILITARY BIOGRAPHY. By Henry Coppée, A.M. Charles B. Richardson, New York.

BYE-WITNESS; OR, LIFE SCENES IN THE OLD NORTH STATE. By A. O. W. B. B. Russell & Co., Boston.

MEMORIAL SERVICE FOR THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND SOLDIERS. With the Commemorative Discourse, by Joseph P. Thompson, D.D. Loyal Publication Society, New York.

MEMORIAL OF GERARD HALLOCK. By J. Halsted Carroll. Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor, New Haven.

FAMILIAR LESSONS ABOUT JESUS. By ANNA E. McKnight. Part I. Henry Hoyt, Boston.

SNOW-BOUND. A Winter Idyl. By John Greenleaf Whittier.—COUPON BONDS. By J. T. Trowbridge. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

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Shall greet me like the odors blown
From unseen meadows newly mown,
Or lilies floating in some pond,
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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening,
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GOVERNMENT has been a large seller of gold this week, and the consequence has been a decline in the price to 137. It closed this evening at 137½ to 137¾. Gold continues to be in active demand for delivery, but holders are no longer able to make ¼ to 3-16 per day by lending their gold, as was the case last week. As usual, the downward tendency of specie brings into the market, as sellers for the fall, a large number of merchants who seek to protect their drooping merchandise by this "hedging" process. It is still pretty generally felt among speculators that if Congress does its duty to the country, gold may sell at 125, or at least 130, by midsummer. But no such price can be touched if the Treasury Department continues to hoard in its vaults two-thirds of the active gold of the country. Exchange has improved, as was natural, on the fall in gold. Bankers' sterling bills are now quoted at 107½ to 108. Many houses which had been keeping their means in gold during the period when it was worth ¼ per cent. a day, have lately sold the coin and bought exchange. It is yet too soon to say anything positively with regard to this year's foreign trade. The year opens with heavy importations—the duties one day this week at this port were nearly a million. And on the other hand, the exports, consisting mainly of cotton, are so liberal as to pay for all we are receiving from abroad, and to leave a balance in our favor. As to the future, that mainly depends upon the spring trade. If importers can work off their large importations at a profit, it may be assumed that the consumption of foreign goods this year will be in excess of all previous years. If, on the other hand, they should be slow of sale, a marked decrease in import entries will be developed as the year advances.

Thus far, sound men are dubious of the future. Of the two great markets for goods, the West is straitened by the decline in produce, and the South, though rich in cotton, is too poor in credit and too newly readmitted to commercial society to command much reliance. Two prominent clouds overhang the future. One is the prospect of currency contraction, the other the prospect of cholera. Either would prove gravely injurious to commerce. Though Congress still delays action upon the Ways and Means bill for the funding of the currency, notice was given this week of a measure declaring the interest-bearing legal tender notes no longer a legal tender after a fixed date. This is laying the axe to the root of the tree. Of these interest-bearing legal tenders there are over \$180,000,000 afloat, some of which are selling as high as 108. By far the greater part of them are held by banks, which hold them in the double quality of investments and reserve. Were they pronounced to be no longer a legal tender, the currency would at a blow be curtailed one-third, and the banks which use them as a reserve would be compelled to replace them by plain legal tenders. The result would be a general enquiry for money and a healthy check to indiscriminate speculation. It is reported from Washington that whatever differences of opinion exist on matters of detail in the Ways and Means Committee, the House, as a whole, is firmly set toward currency contraction, and is likely to favor that measure which looks to the most thorough and direct rehabilitation of the national currency.

Not the least significant indication of the crisis is the condition of real estate. For four years—ever since the first issues of paper-money by Government—speculators have been buying real estate for the rise, holding it year after year, paying taxes on it, and at last selling it, in despair, at no advance on the original cost. Everything—stocks, produce, merchandise, manufactures, gold, and labor—rose; land and houses remained stationary. They sold in 1865 for the same money, in paper—as a general rule—as they had commanded in gold in 1860. Within the past sixty days a change has occurred. An active speculative movement in land and houses has broken out. Buildings have advanced 25 per cent. in a month. Fortunes have been realized by the purchases of vacant lots and Broadway stores. One man is pointed out who has made half a million since New Year by judicious purchases of up-town property. Thus far the movement has been chiefly confined to city property. But it is contagious. An advance in real

estate is reported at Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Chicago. And the enormous advance in rents in New York will naturally drive a considerable proportion of city people to the suburban villages, which will lead to a corresponding rise in values there. Already shrewd speculators are picking up houses and farms in the counties surrounding New York, on the theory that before midsummer they will be worth twice their present value. These symptoms are full of instruction. History has been written in vain for those who neglect or misunderstand them. All inflations in this country have pursued the same uniform path. A plethora of money, or its representatives, starts the rise; it begins in the most sensitive market, the stock exchange; from thence it spreads to produce, then to merchandise, then to labor and manufactures, the product of labor; last of all it reaches real estate, and there, after running wild for a brief season, it culminates in a general collapse. However different the causes of the inflation, however varied its incidents, these have always been its leading characteristics, and they have never varied in their order and sequence. Any who doubt, must be referred to the record of 1836-7 and 1856-7. It is hardly necessary to enforce the application. He who runs may read in the signs which surround him the important revelation that we are now in the last stage of the inflation which commenced four years ago, and which has made and unmade so many fortunes. How much longer it may pursue its headlong course no one can tell. Speculation in real estate may riot until no man can afford to buy a house unless he has been a contractor or expects to be a bankrupt. We may yet see, as in 1836, a wild competition for deep-water lots, or a lively enquiry, at a premium, for shares in a railway not yet constructed, as in 1856. But madness of this sort will be short-lived; whether the end come from the natural reaction, from excessive speculation, or from the cholera, or from currency contraction, or from any other now unforeseen cause, it will come, and come surely and terribly to those who owe money.

The money market rules easy at 5 to 6 per cent. for call loans. The Sub-Treasury in this city has been paying the semi-annual interest on \$100,000,000 of seven-thirties; but still, so large are the receipts for duties and internal revenue that its balance is again nearly \$100,000,000. With this enormous balance on hand, for which there appears to be no use, Government continues to allow 5 per cent. for temporary deposits—to the mystification of commercial men. A banker who should borrow money on interest for the mere pleasure of having a large balance over night, would not enjoy a high credit among his fellows. Whether the Government business is subject to other laws, and justifies more lofty practices, is a question which every tax-payer can settle for himself.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	Feb. 10.	Feb. 17.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	104½	104½	¾
5-20 Bonds, old.....	102½	103½	¾
5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	102½	103½	¾
10-40 Bonds.....	94½	91½	ex coup
7-30 Notes, second series.....	99½	99½	¾
New York Central.....	88½	93	4½
Erie Railway.....	78	81½	3½
Hudson River.....	100	104	4
Reading Railroad.....	100	101½	1½
Michigan Southern.....	69	71½	2½
Cleveland and Pittsburg.....	79½	81½	2
Chicago and North-western.....	27½	29½	1½
" " Preferred.....	54½	56½	2
Chicago and Rock Island.....	101½	106	4½
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	92	95½	3½
Canton.....	43½	44½	1
Cumberland.....	44½	45½	1½
Mariposa.....	12½	12½	¾
American Gold.....	139	137½	1½
Bankers' Bills on London.....	107½	108	¾
Call Loans.....	6	6

The course of prices has again been generally upward. Two prominent bear houses—prominent rather by reason of the extent of their operations than in regard to their means or credit—failed yesterday, and the consequence was large purchases of stock for their account. This of itself led to an improved market, and predisposed speculators to cover shorts, and make ventures for the rise. The clique in Rock Island, assisted by the shorts in that stock, forced up the price yesterday to 106½, at which figure they seem willing to unload. A lively movement has been started in New York Central, on the strength of a theory that Governor Fenton will reconsider his veto of last winter, and permit the road to raise the rate of fare. There is but little real probability of such an event. If the Governor would not permit the road to increase its fares when the currency was only worth 60 cents on the dollar, and gold seemed likely to go to 500, he is hardly likely to do

so now, when we seem to be in a fair way of resuming specie payments in the course of a few years. The advances in Erie and Michigan Southern are chiefly due to the failure previously mentioned, which created an abnormal demand for these stocks. Railway earnings continue thus far to show a decline as compared with last year, and unless there should be a marked advance in the price of produce—of which at present there is no symptom—the opening of navigation will give rise to a still greater diminution. There is no description of Western produce which, at present prices, can afford to travel by rail, if water communication can be had. Nor can it be a matter of doubt that the consumption of Eastern and foreign goods at the West will this year be smaller than it was last—with wheat, corn, and oats at their present figures, the Western farmers will have much less money than usual to spend in dry goods or in travel.

HOME INSURANCE COMPANY OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - -	\$2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - -	3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - -	77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.

A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN MCGEE, Secretary.

J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.

W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - - -	\$1,400,000 00
-------------------------	----------------

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over \$30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

\$912,342 00,

and

\$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

\$1,400,777 16.

This is one of the oldest wholly Mutual Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

THE MERCANTILE MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY.

OFFICE, 35 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Assets, January 1, 1866 \$1,366,699

ORGANIZED APRIL, 1844.

The Company has paid to its Customers, up to the present time, Losses amounting to over

EIGHTEEN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.

For the past nine years the cash dividends paid to Stockholders, made from ONE-THIRD of the net profits, have amounted in the aggregate to

ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-ONE AND A HALF PER CENT.

Instead of issuing a scrip dividend to dealers, based on the principle that all classes of risks are equally profitable, this Company will hereafter make such cash abatement or discount from the current rates, when premiums are paid, as the general experience of underwriters will warrant, and the net profits remaining at the close of the year will be divided to the stockholders.

This Company continues to make Insurance on Marine and Inland Navigation and Transportation Risks on the most favorable terms, including Risks on Merchandise of all kinds, Hulls, and Freight.

Policies making loss payable in Gold or Currency, at the Office in New York, or in Sterling, at the Office of Rathbone, Bros. & Co., in Liverpool.

TRUSTEES.

Joseph Walker,
James Freeland,
Samuel Willetts,
Robert L. Taylor,
William T. Frost,
William Watt,
Henry Eyre,
Cornelius Grinnell,
E. E. Morgan,
Her. A. Schleicher,
Joseph Slagg,
Jos. D. Fish,
Geo. W. Hennings,
Francis Hathaway,

Aaron L. Reid,
Ellwood Walter,
D. Colden Murray,
E. Haydock White,
N. L. McCready,
Daniel T. Willetts,
L. Edgerton,
Henry R. Kunhardt,
John S. Williams,
William Nelson, Jr.,
Charles Dimon,
A. William Heye,
Harold Dolner,
Paul N. Spofford.

ELLWOOD WALTER, President.
CHAS. NEWCOMB, Vice-Prest.

C. J. DESPAUD, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - -	\$1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - -	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President.

EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.

PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

NIACARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - -	\$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - -	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY.

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, \$5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, \$885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

Insurance Scrip.**WILLIAM C. GILMAN,**

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,

PUBLISHER,

130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND,

SQUARE,

AND

UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.**GROVER & BAKER'S
SEWING MACHINES**

WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS

At the State Fairs of

New York,
New Jersey,
Vermont,
Pennsylvania,
Ohio,
Indiana,

Illinois,
Michigan,
Wisconsin,
Iowa,
Kentucky,
Missouri,

Virginia,
N. Carolina,
Tennessee,
Alabama,
Oregon,
California,

And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.
2. It is more easily managed, and is capable of doing a greater variety and range of work than any other.
3. It is capable of doing all the varieties of sewing done by other machines, and, in addition, executes beautiful embroidery and ornamental work.

GROVER & BAKER S. M. CO.,

495 Broadway, New York.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOOK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED.

538 Broadway, N. Y.

**THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE
WORLD.****THE WEED MACHINES.**

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

505 BROADWAY, N. Y.

THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

**Pacific Mail Steamship Company's
THROUGH LINE****TO CALIFORNIA,**

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, via Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

FIRST CABIN, SECOND CABIN, STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....\$325. \$225. \$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably \$25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, via HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. G. BELLOWES, AGENT.

DEMULCENT SOAP, FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS, FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY
J. C. HULL'S SON,
22 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale
by all Dealers.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifer or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lye is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,
64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES, 625 BROADWAY, N. Y., MAKE THE LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,
ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,
629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,
in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fullness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.
721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.
Send for a descriptive Circular.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PTLE'S SALERATUS. | PTLE'S O. K. SOAP.
PTLE'S CREAM TARTAR. | PTLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PTLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargain, prices \$60, \$75, \$100, \$125, \$150, \$175, \$200, and \$225. Factory and Warerooms, 81 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO., OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865.....	\$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865.....	\$2,684,804 86
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.....	257,260 54
Total.....	\$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death.....	\$490,522 03
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies.....	294,688 53
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses.....	71,528 95
Paid commissions and agency expenses.....	216,405 53
Paid for advertising and physician's fees.....	31,542 41
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses.....	14,203 80
Total.....	\$1,118,901 25

Total.....\$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank.....	\$250,036 56
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, \$2,140,775).....	2,115,431 25
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, \$54,475).....	52,561 50
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, \$324,015).....	333,923 15
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, \$55,856).....	48,500 00
Real estate (market value, \$250,000).....	140,819 74
Bonds and mortgages.....	250,747 02
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest.....	1,186,988 21
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866.....	242,451 02
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	60,980 59
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	1,879 12
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission.....	197,601 54
Total.....	\$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring \$16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost.....	\$4,881,919 70
(Market value, \$5,018,449 06.)	
Disposed of as follows:	
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866.....	\$78,841 45
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs.....	36,000 00
Reserved for special deposit for minor children.....	285 76
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest).....	3,520,297 06
Reserved for:	
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand.....	118,211 88
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid.....	232,895 00
Dividend, 1865 (present value).....	315,042 00
Dividend, 1866 (present value).....	406,117 00
Special reserve (not divided).....	184,228 95
Total.....	\$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., { Medical Examiners.
GEORGE WILKES, M.D., {
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES. (ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

DECKER & CO., MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES, 419 BROOME STREET, One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

Bradbury's Pianos "the Best."

Pronounced "THE BEST" by the most renowned artists. SUPERIOR in tone, touch, power, DURABILITY, and elegance of finish." Warerooms 425 and 427 Broome Street, corner of Crosby. Call or send for circular.

WM. B. BRADBURY.

Light Biscuit made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

UNITED STATES STEEL PEN WORKS, FACTORY, CAMDEN, N. J.

R. ESTERBROOK & CO.

STEEL PEN MANUFACTURERS,
WAREHOUSES, { 403 ARCH STREET, Philadelphia.
{ 42 JOHN STREET, New York.

Samples and prices on application. Lots made to order of any pattern or stamp required.

CAUTION.

These Pens are of genuine American manufacture, and equal in finish, elasticity, and fineness of point to the best imported. They are, therefore, sure to gain the confidence of the American public. The fac-simile of our signature is sufficient security against foreign imitation.

R. ESTERBROOK & CO.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS. OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK:

Joseph GilloTT Warranted.
or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number.
New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761.

TRADE MARK: Joseph GilloTT Birmingham. Designating Numbers.

For sale by

JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,
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